

---

T H E  
LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL  
M A G A Z I N E,  
A N D  
B R I T I S H R E V I E W,

For NOVEMBER, 1792.

---

L I F E O F V O L T A I R E.

WITH AN ELEGANT PORTRAIT.

**M**ARIE FRANCOIS AROUET, who afterwards assumed the name of Voltaire, from a small patrimonial estate which he inherited, was born at Paris, the twentieth of February, 1694, being the son of Francois Arouet, an ancient notary of the Chatelet, by Marie Marguerette Daumart. At the birth of this celebrated man, who afterwards attained the age of eighty-four years, his life was despaired of, and his health was for a long time in a precarious state. From his earliest years he shewed great brilliancy of genius and activity of imagination; and, to use his own phrase, *he lisped in numbers ere he left the cradle*. He studied in the college founded by Louis XIV. and made a rapid progress. Some pieces of his still exist, written between the age of twelve and fourteen, which do not betray any mark of childhood.

Early in life he was introduced to the celebrated Ninon de L'Enclos,  
VOL. IX.

who was so pleased with his display of talents, that she presented him with two thousand livres, to furnish him a small library. When he left the college, he was sent to study the law; but the dryness of that pursuit so much disgusted him, that he gave up all thoughts of the profession, and applied himself to his beloved poetry. Having been admitted to the society of the Abbé Choilieu, the Marquis de Fare, the Duke de Sulli, the grand Prior de Vendome, and others, he acquired that natural good taste and pleasantry which so eminently distinguished the court of Louis XIV. Such a society rather encouraged than corrected that propensity to satire, which he shewed at a very early age, and which was afterwards the cause of many disagreeable circumstances to him. He indulged his inclination in this respect at the expence of government and the governors; and was imprisoned near a year in the Bastille, during

during the regency of the Duke of Orleans. His tragedy of Oedipus appeared in 1718, and met with great success. The regent saw the piece, and was so charmed with it, that he ordered him to be released, and said, if he would be prudent, he would take care of him. Arouet with great humour replied, "I am much obliged to your Highness, but beg you will not take care of my lodging or my diet."

His father wished to make him an advocate, and was so offended at his taste for poetry, that he had driven him from his house; but going to one of the representations of his new tragedy, he was affected, even to shed tears, and embraced his son in the midst of many of the celebrated ladies of the court: there was from henceforth no further thought of making young Arouet a lawyer.

About the year 1720, he took a journey to Braxelles, the unfortunate and much celebrated Rousseau was then in that city; these two great geniuses met, and soon conceived an aversion to each other. Rousseau shewed Voltaire an ode he had written *To Posterity*. "This letter," said the latter, "will never reach those to whom it is addressed." This and other severe strokes, did not tend to conciliate affairs between them. On his return to Paris, in 1722, he produced his *Mariamne*, which did not succeed, any more than his tragedy of *Artemira*. These mortifications, his independent spirit, his religious opinions, and his inclination to satire, induced him to retire to England, where he published his *Henriade*. George I. and the Princess of Wales, afterwards Queen, bestowed favours and gratifications on him, and procured him many subscribers. This laid the foundation of his fortune, which was afterwards considerably augmented by the profits of his works, the favour of princes, by commerce, and by a spirit of œconomy, which was stigmatized as avarice, till in his latter days he

shewed he knew how to make a good use of riches. On his return to France, he employed the money he had collected in England in a lottery, established by M. Desforts, controulor general of the finances, and was successful. This attention to pecuniary affairs did not hinder him from cultivating the belles lettres, which was his ruling passion. His tragedy of *Brutus* appeared in 1730, written with greater strength of language than any other of his tragedies, and was more esteemed by the connoisseurs than followed by the generality of spectators. The beaux esprits of that age, Fontenelle, La Motte, &c. advised him to quit the dramatic art, as they thought it not suited to his genius. Voltaire thought otherwise, and to convince them to the contrary, produced his *Zaire*, a work the most affecting of any that has appeared for a long period of time.

Voltaire did not confine himself to poetry. His *Lettres Philosophiques*, full of bold speculation and satirical shafts, aimed at what he thought errors in religion, having appeared, was directed by an arret of the parliament of Paris to be burned; and an order issued to arrest the author, who prudently got off. Voltaire had connected himself (in 1733) with the Marchioness du Chatelet (whose life we gave in our Magazine for March); with her he retired to Cerey, an estate belonging to that lady in Champagne, where he built a gallery for experiments on light and electricity, and formed a fine cabinet, and a numerous library. In this retreat he composed his *Elements of the Philosophy of Newton*. Our great philosopher was then little known in France, and the numerous disciples of Descartes were as little desirous to be acquainted with him. While employed in those occupations, he composed his tragedies of *Alzire*, *Mahomet*, the *Prodigal Son*, and *Merope*; the former he sent into the world in 1736. His view in this, as in many other of his works, was

to soften the minds of his audience, and he succeeded beyond his hopes. Here he also wrote his Universal History. He was now in the prime of his age, and the height of his genius, which he proved by his tragedy of Mahomet, a piece full of bold and manly strokes. Complaints were made of it to the *procureur general*, as a work tending to injure religion; and, by the advice of Cardinal Fleury, our author caused it to be withdrawn. His tragedy of Merope was performed with a success equal to his *Alzire*, and afforded the idea of a species of tragedy, of which there existed few models; when it appeared in print, it was however much criticised. It was on the representation of this piece, that both pit and boxes demanded to see the author, an honour then conferred on authors of great merit only.

For six years Voltaire continued in this charming retreat, during which time he kept up a correspondence with the Prince of Prussia, afterwards Frederic the Great; at the end of which time, Voltaire and Madame du Chatelet went to Brussels, on the business of a law-suit; and while they were there, the old King of Prussia died, and the young king set out on his travels. On his return he intended to take Brussels in his way, but falling sick by the way, he sent for Voltaire, who waited on him, and was well received. Frederic gave him an invitation to his court, but Voltaire told him, that his attachment to Madame du Chatelet would not permit him.

Returning to Cerey, he passed his winters at Paris, where, he tells us, he had a croud of enemies. He had written the History of Charles XII. several pieces for the theatres, and even an epic poem; he had of course, as enemies, all those who meddled either in verse or prose; and as he had also been so bold as to write on philosophy, the devotees of course branded him as an atheist. After the production of Merope, by the

interest of the celebrated Madame de Pompadour, he obtained the favour of the court, and was employed to compose a piece on the marriage of the Dauphin, on which occasion he wrote his *Princess of Navarre*, which although little applauded, procured him additional rewards from the court; he was made gentleman of the king's chamber, and appointed also historiographer of France. As soon as he received the latter appointment, to prove he was not unworthy of his place, he wrote his History of the War in 1741. In 1745, 6, and 7, he was employed by the ministry in several affairs of consequence; and when the invasion of England was meditated, was directed to draw the manifesto of the King of France in favour of Charles Stuart. Voltaire had been long desirous of being a member of the French Academy, which honour he did not obtain until 1746. The fatigues which pursued him on his admission, gave him so much uneasiness, that, on an invitation from King Stanislaus, he retired with Madame du Chatelet to Luneville. This illustrious lady died there, in 1749.

Soon after her death, he returned to Paris, but did not remain there long. Although he had many admirers, he was incessantly complaining of the endeavours used to rob him of that glory of which he was so desirous. His friends tried to calm his inquietude, by loading him with praise; but thinking he should find more admiration, more tranquillity, and greater reward, at a distance from his country, he accepted of an invitation from Frederic II. King of Prussia; and in 1750, repaired to Berlin. Here he received a pension of twenty thousand livres, had peculiar attention paid him, an apartment in the palace, permission to see the king at certain hours, and to assist him in those literary productions with which that heroic monarch amused himself during his leisure time. But this did not last long; the cele-

brated Maupertius was engaged in a quarrel with Koenig; Voltaire, contrary to the direction of the king, took a part in it, and a disagreement between the king and him followed. Voltaire, who had been honoured with the key of chamberlain, and the cross of the order, sent them back to the king in the first transport of anger. The king made concessions to retain him, but Voltaire departed, promising to return, at the same time determined not to do so. Voltaire's absence afforded Maupertius an opportunity to make the breach wider. Among other tales, he reported, that while Voltaire was one day with General Marstein, employed in revising the Memoirs of Russia, composed by that officer, the king sent him some verses to look over, and that Voltaire said to the general, "My friend, you see the king has sent me some of his dirty linen to wash now; I will wash yours afterwards." Whether this was true or false, the king caused Voltaire to be stopped at Frankfurt, until he had delivered up his poetry.

Having recovered his liberty, he endeavoured to obtain permission to return to Paris; but one of his poems, deemed both obscene and impious, preventing him from succeeding, he retired to Colmar, and about a year after to Geneva. Here he purchased a pleasant country residence, and enjoyed the esteem of the Genevans and foreigners who visited that place. The disputes which agitated this little republic, forced him to quit his agreeable retreat, and he fixed at the village of Ferney, in the country of Gex, about a league from Geneva. He found a country almost wild; he cultivated it, and from a population of fifty peasants, raised a colony of twelve hundred persons, labouring successfully for themselves and the State. Many artists, particularly watch-makers, settled under his patronage, and he sent their productions for sale

to Russia, Spain, Germany, Holland, and Italy.

In this retreat, he called to him and protected the great niece of the illustrious Corneille, saved Syrvan from oppression, and rescued from ignominy the unfortunate family of Calas. In this retreat, Voltaire erected a tribunal, where he judged almost all the human race. Here he enjoyed the esteem of many sovereigns; the King of Prussia, notwithstanding their quarrel, kept up a constant correspondence with him, and caused a statue to be made of him, on the base of which was inscribed IMMORTALITY; and the Empress of Russia sent him many valuable presents.

His inclination still led him to wish a return to Paris; and in 1778 he quitted Ferney, and set out for the capital. He met with a most flattering reception; the academicians decreed him honours hitherto unknown; he was crowned in a full theatre, and the public expressed the warmest enthusiasm for him. The fatigues he underwent, the alteration in his regimen, and his way of living, heated his blood; a violent hæmorrhage ensued, and left him very weak. Some days before his last illness, being at table with the Marquis de Villette, he said to him—"You are like the kings of Egypt, who, when they ate, had a death's head before them." Finding himself in want of sleep, he took too large a dose of opium, which almost deprived him of his senses. He died the 30th of May, 1778. Various reports have been spread respecting his conduct in his last moments, but little can be relied on respecting them. Voltaire's deistical principles naturally drew on him the abuse of the clergy of the church of Rome; and, to use a phrase of Lord Bolingbroke's, they have not failed to bestow on him plenty of ecclesiastical Billingsgate. But when the calm light of reason shall judge of him as it ought, Voltaire will stand forth as a friend of man, and an illustrious partizan.



partizan of liberty. Posterity will esteem him so long as the French language shall exist, for the brilliancy of his imagination, his exquisite taste, his diversity of talents, and his variety of knowledge. His works are astonishingly voluminous, amounting to ninety-one volumes in 12mo. including his letters. Among the poetical pieces are the celebrated poem of the *Henriade*, the tragedies of *Cædepe*, *Heriode et Mariamne*, *Brutus*, *Zaire*, *Adelaide*, *Alzire*, *Zuleme*, *Le Mort de Cæsar*, *Mahomet*, *Semeramis*, *Oreste*, *Rome Sauvée*, *L'Orphelin de la Chine*,

*Tancred*, *Les Scythes*, *Irene*, Several comedies, among which are *L'Indiscret*, *L'Infant Prodigue*, *Nanine*, some operas, and a great number of fugitive pieces.

His works in prose are, 1. *His Essay on General History*, which, with the *Lives of Lewis XIV.* and *XV.* form 10 vols. 8vo. 2. *History of Charles XII.* 3. *The History of Peter I.* 4. *Melanges de Literature.* 5. *Dictionnaire Philosophique*; and a variety of others, on which the limits of our work will not permit us to enlarge.

# BIOGRAPHIANA;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

## NUMBER VIII.

### PASSERAT.

THIS famous French school-man in Henry the Third's time, was taken ill on the road, and carried to an hospital. The physicians who attended him, having some doubts on his disease, and looking upon him as a poor ignorant man, called out, "*Fiat experimentum in corpore vile.*"—"Let us make an emperiment on this vile body." "*Corpus que tam vile est,*" replied Passerat, to their astonishment and confusion, "*pro quo Christus ipse non dedignatus esse mori.*"—"Yet for this vile body Christ did not disdain to die."

### Auberi de MAURIER.

The best account of the illustrious house of Orange is to be met with in the memoirs of this author, which were compiled from what his father had told him. His father had been ambassador from Louis XIV. to the States General. They are interspersed with anecdotes of Grotius, (whom he knew extremely well) of Cardinal Richelieu, &c. They are written with great simplicity, in that style which must ever carry conviction of their truth. The title is, *\*Memoires pour servir a l'Histoire*

de la Hollande, 2 tomes, 12mo.' To which his grandson afterwards added another volume, called, '*Memoires de Hamburg, 12mo.*' He concludes his memoirs with the following curious passage: "Here I am, arrived at the end of my memoirs. I had formed the plan of them long ago, but hitherto I have not been able to execute it, being hindered by bad health, and by the various distresses of my life. My fortune I saw buried with Cardinal de Richelieu, who admitted me to his table among the greatest personages of the kingdom, and who had promised to do something for me. I retired to my seat at Maurier, as well to repair the breaches I had made in my fortune, (having indulged the vain hopes of the world) as to enjoy repose, which I hoped to preserve in the tranquillity of retirement. I was then in a situation to amuse myself, by committing to writing the most important remarks I had made in many foreign courts, and even in that of France. But I have found, by sad experience, that the Marchioness of Rambouillet (whose words are oracles) was in the right when she said, that great minds, who are fond of the belles lettres, do not find themselves easy in the country

country, inhabited in general by people badly brought up, and where envy and jealousy reign more than in town, and where they must expect to be incessantly harrassed by chicane."

He draws the following very curious character of his own sister—"My sister was a prodigy for memory and judgment, qualities which seldom meet together. She could have restored both the Old and New Testaments (had they been lost) knowing them by heart. She had read all the French, Spanish, and Italian histories and romances, and retained the most trifling adventures in them, even the names of the confidants and servants. In other respects she was agreeable and instructing in her conversation."

Speaking, in his preface, of our Queen Elizabeth, he says—"Some ridiculous writers vainly hoped to render Queen Elizabeth odious, and even execrable, in the eyes of posterity, on account of the death of Mary Stuart, although it is certain that this unfortunate princess was of so unquiet and quarrelsome a disposition, that she never could restrain herself from harrassing Queen Elizabeth, although much more powerful than herself; and thus courted her own ruin. This cannot be disputed, as it is confirmed by the testimony of Castelnaw, intendant of her affairs in France, and ambassador in England, who says in his memoirs, that she learned this fault of Cardinal Lorraine, her uncle."

Speaking of those who may criticize his style, which is not always elegant and correct, he says—"These people do not know that I never was at a college, and that the little I know of languages I learned at home, from masters or from conversation. I never read a single line in Friscian or any other grammarian. The syntaxes and grammars, which my father called the crosses of youth, are unknown to me." Allowing the latter part of the sentence to be true, it will only serve to illustrate

the old Latin adage, "*Nil sine cruce bonum*"—"Nothing that is worth having," (and what can be better worth having to an orator than grammatical precision and propriety of expression) "can be procured without pain and trouble."

"*Nil sine magno  
Vita labore dedit mortalibus.*"

THEODORE de LONGUEVILLE,

Who was a woman of gallant as well as of political intrigue, was to pass a few days at a nobleman's country-house. She was asked to walk, to ride, or to read. To all this she said no; adding, "*En vérité, je n'aime point les amusements honnêtes.*" She died at last at Port Royal en grande devotion.

DESBARREAUX,

Who had been a great libertine in the latter part of his life, indecently requested three things of God, to wit, forgetfulness of the past, patience in the present time, and pity for the future.

CHAPELAIN,

Wrote a most wretched epic poem, called the *Pucelle d'Orleans*, and employed twenty years in composing it. On its publication, Montmour wrote this distich in a blank leaf of it—

*Illa Capellani dudum expectata Puella,  
Post tanta in lucem tempora, prodit Anus.*  
This maid expected now, for ages past,  
An old and shrivell'd hag turns out at last.

Chapelain made out, at Collège's desire, the list of the men of letters, to be pensioned by Louis XIV.; his own was fifty pounds a year more than the rest. This raised their jealousy, and they were continually ridiculing him. The pensions were in general from fifty to one hundred and fifty pounds a year. Chapelain had two hundred pounds. The pensions of men of letters given by Louis XIV. do not appear to have amounted to more money altogether, than what in some countries is given to a secretary

secretary of state, who has been tumbled out, after having blundered a few years in office.

PASCAL.

Many of the illustrious and learned persons that returned to the neighbourhood of Port Royal, amused their leisure with some manual exercise or trade. Racine, I think, and Pascal, made shoes. When a Jesuit was one day ridiculing before Boileau the occupation of this respectable and learned man, Boileau replied, in allusion to what he had written against that order, "J'ignore si Pascal travaille a faire des souliers, mais je sçais bien qu'avec ses Provinciales il vous a porta une bonne botte."\* In one of his Provincial letters, he says with great acuteness, "I have not made this longer, only for want of time to shorten it." Pascal says, "Il est rare que les grande geometres soient fins ou que les gens fins soient un grands geometres."—"It does not often happen that great geometricians are cunning, or that cunning men are great geometricians."

Pascal had so great a genius for mathematics, that when he was quite a boy, he had, by his own application, reached the thirty-second proposition of Euclid. At the age of sixteen he published a treatise on conic sections, and at the age of twenty he had invented an arithmetical machine, by which a person, ignorant of arithmetic, and without pen and ink, could make any calculation he pleased. The size of it, it seems, was the only objection made to it. His detached thoughts on religion, and on other subjects, are mere fragments of what he intended to write on the subject, had he lived long enough. "Cet auteur elegant (says the author of his life) avoit destinée les dernieres annies de sa vie a mediter sur la religion, et a travailler pour sa defense contre les Athées, les libertins, et les Juifs. Ses

infirmités l'enpecherent d'achever cette ouvrage et il n'en restent que quelques morceaux sublimes et eloquents."—"This elegant author was destined in the last years of his life to meditate on religion, and to labour in its defence against atheists, libertines, and Jews. His infirmities prevented him from finishing that work, and there only remains some elegant and sublime pieces."

CHARLES EMANUEL, Duke of Savoy.

A frame of adamant, a soul of fire;  
No perils daunt him, nor no labours tire.

The whole life of this active and indefatigable prince seems to have been spent in flying from one part of his dominions to the other. When in some of his *demeles* with Henry the Fourth of France, he thought the common manner of negotiation by ministers tedious and unsatisfactory; he rode himself post to Paris to settle the dispute with Henry. He had agreed to restore the Marquisate of Saluces for the district of Bresse and Barge. When, however, he was pressed to fulfil his agreement, he replied, "Que la mot de restitution ne devoit jamais entrer dans la bouche des princes et surtout des guerriers."—"That the word restitution should never enter the mouths of princes, particularly warriors." After having been defeated in some of his ambitious projects, he died of a broken heart, belying the bon mot applied to him—"Que son cœur étoit aussi inaccessible que son pays."—"That his heart was as inaccessible as his country." We have in the English language no good history of this illustrious and enterprising race of princes, who at first dukes, became afterwards kings, who have always kept in their hands the keys of Italy, and who have in general contrived, at the end of every war in which they have been engaged, to add some populous and fertile country to their native mountains. The late Dr.

Johnson

\* Botte signifies either a boot or a thrust in fencing.

Johnson recommended very strongly to Baretti to write the history of the house of Savoy.

**Cardinal ALBERONI.**

When this enterprising prelate had in vain attempted to embroil all Europe, for the aggrandizement of his sovereign the King of Spain, he was obliged to fly to Rome, and was soon appointed by the Pope to be the legate of Romagna. The little republic of San Marino, bordering upon his government, he was very solicitous to bring it under the dominion of the Pope. He had tampered with the principal citizens for that purpose, and a day was appointed, on which he was to receive the homage of the inhabitants for his sovereign. The ceremony was to take place after high mass in the principal church of the town, in which he was seated under a canopy, and surrounded by his attendants. The mass, however, began as usual with the word "*Libertas*." This single word, however, struck the imaginations of the people who were in the church so forcibly, that they fell with great violence upon his eminence and his suite, and drove them out of the town with the greatest rapidity. Abbe Venuti says, "Che convenne al Cardinal Alberoni de prendere folliamente la fuga, per porre in salvo la sua vita;" and that his master, Clement XII. affected in several manifestos to disapprove of the Cardinal's attempt.

**Cardinal PASSCONEI,**

Was librarian to the Vatican, under Benedict XIV. He enriched the library with very curious books and manuscripts, and performed all the functions of his employment, which that zeal with which his great love for learning ever supplied him. The Cardinal had in early life displayed great talents as a negotiator, and he was sent Nuncio into Germany. His efforts contributed very much to the peace of Utrecht. The Cardinal was such an enemy to the Jesuits, that he would not suffer a book written by any of that order in his extensive and magnificent library. His death is supposed to have been hastened by his being obliged (as secretary of the briefs to Benedict XIV.) to sign a bull fulminated against some writer, who had attacked that order. Benedict the XIVth's favourite, Cardinal Valerti, he disliked so much, that he always called him the Bashaw. One day in the Pope's chapel, when he was to give him the kiss of peace, which is always preceded by saying, "*Pax tecum*," he said to him, (loud enough to be heard by the other Cardinals) "*Salamelec*!"—"The devil take you."

He dying before the Jesuits, they put this inscription on his hermitage at Frascati, near Rome.

Cardinali Passenei  
Societas a Jesu  
Superstis  
Posuit.

**ON THE RING OF SATURN, AND THE ROTATION OF THE FIFTH SATELLITE UPON ITS AXIS.**

BY WILLIAM HERSCHEL, LL.D. F.R.S.

**I**T is well known to astronomers, that the ring of Saturn becomes alternately enlightened on one of its sides, and that this change of illumination takes place, when the planet passes through the node of the ring. This happened in October 1789,

when the southern plane, which had been in the dark for about fifteen years, became visible to us; an event which I have looked forwards with considerable impatience. In the year 1790, the position of the ring was still too oblique to permit me

to examine it well enough, to form a proper judgment of its appearance, but lately I have been able to view it with greater advantage, with every one of my telescopes.

In a former paper, where I ventured to hint at a division of the ring of Saturn, it was highly necessary to express that surmise with proper doubts, concerning the reality of so wonderful a construction; but my late view of its southern plane, assisted by some conclusions drawn from the discovery of the quick rotation of the ring, have enabled me to speak decisively on this subject. My suspicion of a divided or double ring arose chiefly from the following circumstances.

In the first place, the black belt, during the time of about ten years that I observed it on the northern plane, was subject to no kind of change, but remained always permanently of the same breadth and colour. With regard to its breadth, it is true that I could only judge of that part of it which goes across the body of the planet, by the rules of perspective, which made me suppose it to be as broad there as it was on the two sides; yet now, as we know that the ring revolves in about ten hours and a half, it is very certain that the apparently narrow part across the body, and that which was hidden behind the planet, in the course of an evening when I have been observing Saturn for many hours together, must have been exposed to view in their full breadth, upon the sides of the ring; and that if there had been any difference, I must have perceived it, especially as I was continually on the look-out for such phenomena, by way of ascertaining, if possible, the rotation of the ring.

In the next place, the colour of this dark belt was also uniformly the same, whenever I observed it under equally favourable circumstances, and being so well defined on both its borders, and in every part of the revolving ring, presenting us with

VOL. IX.

the same view of colour, breadth, and sharpness of its outlines, no kind of hypothesis, but a division of the ring through which the open heavens may be seen, will answer the conditions of this phenomenon. It remained therefore only to ascertain whether the southern plane would present us with the same aspect. And since I have lately had a great number of fine views of the ring of Saturn, I shall here deliver as many of the observations as will be sufficient to throw light enough on this subject, to enable us to decide the question, whether this ring be double or single.

Observations on the ring of Saturn.

Sept. 7, 1790, 20 feet reflector. No dark division can as yet be seen upon the ring of Saturn, but it is hardly open enough to expect it to be visible.

Aug. 5, 1791, 20 feet reflector. The black list on this side of the ring of Saturn is exactly in the same relative place where I saw it on the northern plane.

Sept. 25, 1791, 20 feet reflector. The black division goes all round the ring as far as I can trace it exactly in the same place where I used to see it on the northern side.

Oct. 13, 1791, 10 feet reflector. The black division upon the southern plane of Saturn's ring is in the same place of the same breadth, and at the same distance from the outer edge that I have always seen it on the northern plane, with a power of 400. I see it very distinctly; it is of the same kind of colour as the space between the ring and the body, but not so dark.

Oct. 24, 1791, 7 feet reflector, with a new machine polished, most excellent speculum. I see the division on the ring of Saturn, and the open spaces between the ring and the body are equally dark, and of the same colour with the heavens about the planets.

Twenty feet reflector. The black division upon the ring is as dark as

T t

the



the heavens. It is equally broad on both sides of the ring. I see it very steadily, and can trace it a good way towards Saturn, both on the part of the ring which is turned towards us, and that which lies the other way. I trace it as far as the place where a line perpendicular to the direction of the ring would touch the inside of the ring, or the outside of the open space between the ring and the body of the planet.

Forty feet reflector. I see the division on the ring of Saturn of the same colour as the surrounding heavens. It is of an equal breadth on both sides, and I can trace it a great way towards the body of Saturn.

Twenty feet reflector, with a power of 600. I can trace the division very nearly as far as the place where a perpendicular to the direction of the ring, would divide the open space between the planet and the ring in two equal parts.

From these observations, added to what had been given in some former papers, I think myself authorized now to say that the planet Saturn has two concentric rings, of unequal dimensions and breadth, situated in one plane, which is probably not much inclined to the equator of the planet. These rings are at a considerable distance from each other, the smallest being much less in diameter at the outside, than the largest is at the inside.

The dimensions of the two rings and the intermediate space, are nearly in the following proportion to each other.

	Parts.
Inside diameter of the smallest ring — — —	5900
Outside diameter — — —	7510
Inside diameter of the largest ring — — —	7740
Outside diameter — — —	8300
Breadth of the inner ring —	805
Breadth of the outer ring —	280
Breadth of the vacant space	115

Admitting, with M. De la Lande, that the breadth of the whole ring, as formerly supposed to consist of

one entire mass, is near one third of the diameter of Saturn; it follows, that the vacant space between the two rings, according to the above statement, amounts to near 2513 miles. In giving these proportions, which are merely taken from very accurate representations of the phenomena that offered themselves, I do not mean to be scrupulously exact, but reserve a greater accuracy for a future opportunity, when a micrometer, which I have lately applied to the forty feet telescope, will assist me to have recourse to proper measures.

It may be remarked, that this opening in the ring must be of considerable service to the planet, in reducing the space that is eclipsed by the shadow of the ring to a much smaller compass; both on account of the direct light it lets through, and because there will be a strong reverberation of the rays of the sun between the opposite edges. Moreover, if these rings should be surrounded by some atmosphere, which is highly probable, the refractions that will take place upon the edges, will contribute to lessen the darkness, which the shadow of an undivided ring would have occasioned. As we have now admitted Saturn to have two rings entirely detached from each other, so as plainly to permit us to see the open heavens through the vacancy between them; and as in my former paper I have given the revolution of the ring, which was then supposed to be all in one united mass, it will be necessary to examine whether both rings partake in the same revolution, or to which the period which has been assigned belongs.

To decide this point we must recur to the observations of the spots, by which the rotation of the ring was determined. The spot, for instance, (mentioned in Phil. Trans. vol. 80, p. 481) which has been observed to revolve with great regularity through upwards of 300 periods between the 28th of July and the 24th of December, 1789, was certainly situ-

ated pretty near the outer edge. The spot, as may be gathered from the observation of the 16th of September, and 25th of December, was most likely on the very edge itself, nor could the spot be far from it. This is quite sufficient to determine us to assign the period we have given to belong to the large thin and narrow outward ring.

The spots were probably at some distance from the outward ring, but this distance might possibly not exceed that of the inside edge of the same ring. We may, however, admit them to have adhered to the inner ring, whose station is perhaps not very different from that of the outer one, or we may examine whether these two spots may perhaps agree to some other supposed revolution of the inner ring; but then the observations that are given of them, will hardly be sufficient for establishing the time of that ring's rotation with accuracy, though they undoubtedly must amount to a proof that it also revolves with great velocity on its axis.

That there should be a small difference in the periods of the rotation of the two rings is highly probable from their different dimensions, and now that the rotation is known, the division of it into two parts seems to be a very natural consequence of its construction. For when the extreme thinness is taken into consideration, we find, by Kepler's laws of the periods of revolving bodies, placed at different distances, that it would be very wonderful for so thin and so broad a plane to have adhesion enough to keep together, and that consequently this ring, in its divided state, supposing the rotation of the parts to favour the construction, is more permanent than it would be otherwise. This, however, is only mentioned as a collateral circumstance, and by no means intended either as a proof of the division or the different rotation of

the two parts of the ring. For notwithstanding we cannot but set the highest value upon the excellent theories that have been lately delivered in the memoirs of a learned Society, of which I have also the honour to be a member; we must refer entirely to observations of the necessary data, on which to found our subsequent computations.

The memoir to which I allude refers to observations of many divisions of the ring of Saturn. This must lead us to consider the question, whether the construction of this ring is of a nature, so as permanently to remain in its present state? or whether it be liable to continual and frequent changes, in such a manner, as in the course of not many years to be seen subdivided into narrow slips, and then again as united into one or two circular planes only? Now without entering into a discussion, the mind seems to revolt even at first sight against an idea of the chaotic state in which so large a mass as the ring of Saturn must needs be, if phenomena like these can be admitted. Nor ought we to indulge a suspicion of this being a reality, unless repeated and well confirmed observations had proved beyond a doubt, that this ring was actually in so fluctuating a condition. Let us therefore examine what facts we have to guide us in this enquiry. After looking over all my observations upon Saturn since the year 1774 to the present time, I can find only four, where any other black division upon the ring is mentioned, than the one which I have constantly observed, and from which I have deduced the actual division of the ring into two very unequal portions. These observations are as follow:

June 19, 1710, 10 h. 15 m. mean time. With a new seven feet speculum, having an aperture of 6.4 inches, with also a much improved small speculum, and a power of about 200. I saw a second black list upon the ring of Saturn, close

to the inner side on the preceding arm of the ring.

June 20, 1780, 10h. 10m. I saw the same double list on the preceding ring.

June 21, 1780, 10h. 1m. small twenty feet Newtonian reflector, power 200. I saw the second black list on Saturn's ring; it is closer to the inside than the other is to the outside, but it is only visible on the preceding side of the ring.

June 26, 1780, 9h. 34m. small twenty feet Newtonian reflector, aperture confined to seven inches. The second black list on the preceding side of the ring of Saturn is visible.

June 29, 1780, 10h. 19m. Saturn's belts very clear. I saw but one black list upon the ring. The shadow of the planet visible upon the side of the ring as well as upon the small northern part, that projects beyond the planet.

Nov. 21, 1791, 0h. 28m. sid. time, forty feet reflector, power of 370. There is no black division visible upon the ring of Saturn, but the one near the outer edge.

It must be confessed, that Saturn was in the very best situation for viewing the plane of the ring when the first four observations were

made, and that consequently they may be looked upon as a strong evidence for another division. But hitherto I have set them aside, as wanting more confirmation, not only because I never could perceive the same dark line on the following side of the ring, as well as on the preceding side; nor since I could not find it on the 29th of June, 1780. as we have seen above, but chiefly because I have not been able, with any of my best instruments, to see it again at all. We also find by the observation of the 21st of November, 1791, which has been added, that the southern plane as yet presents us with no other division than the capital one which I have observed these thirteen years on both sides of the ring. However, if the opening should be very narrow, and the rings eccentric, it is possible that a dark line might by this means become visible on one side only. Moreover, these objects may be so minute, that no other time than when the plane of the ring is exposed as much as it can possibly be, will do to ascertain such phenomena. This will happen again about the year 1796, when we hope to have a satisfactory view of it with our large instruments.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## OBSERVATIONS ON BEES.

BY J. HUNTER, F.R.S.

[ *Continued from Page 264.* ]

### *Of the Heat of Bees.*

**B**EES are, perhaps, the only insect that produces heat within itself, and were therefore intended to have a tolerable well regulated warmth, without which, of course, they are very uncomfortable, and soon die; and which makes not only a part of their internal œconomy respecting the individual, but a part of their external, or common œconomy, and is therefore necessary to be known. The heat of bees is ascertainable by the thermometer,

and I shall give the result of experiments made at two different seasons of the year.

July 18th, at ten in the evening, wind northerly, thermometer at  $54^{\circ}$ , in the open air, I introduced it into the top of a hive full of bees, and in less than five minutes it rose to  $82^{\circ}$ . I let it stand all night; at five in the morning it was down at  $79^{\circ}$ ; at nine the same morning, it had risen to  $83^{\circ}$ . and at one o'clock to  $84^{\circ}$ ; and at nine in the evening it was down to  $78^{\circ}$ .

December

December 30th, air at  $35^{\circ}$ , bees at  $73^{\circ}$ .

Although bees support a heat nearly equal to that of a quadruped, yet their external covering is not different from that of insects which do not; there is no difference between their coat and a common fly's or wasp's, nor are they fatter, all which makes them bad retainers of heat; therefore they are chilly; and in a cold too severe for them to be comfortable in, they make up for their want of size singly, and get into clusters. A single bee has so little power of keeping itself warm, that it presently becomes numbed, and almost motionless; a common night in summer will produce this effect: a cold capable of producing such effects kills them soon, by which means vast numbers die; therefore a common bee is obliged to feed and live in society, to keep itself warm in cold weather. We know that the consumption of heat may be greater than the power of forming it; when that is the case, we become sensible of it, and then take on such actions as are either instinctive, such as arise naturally out of the impression, or as reason, custom, or habit direct. Many animals, upon the impression of cold, coil themselves up in their own fur, bringing all their extremities into the center, or hollow of the belly, birds bring their feet under the belly, and thrust their bill between their wing and body; many, if not all, go to the warmest places, either from instinctive principle, or habit: but the bees have no other mode but forming clusters, and the larger the better. As they are easily affected by cold, their instinctive principle respecting cold is very strong, as likewise with regard to wet. I have seen a swarm hanging out at the door of a hive, ready to take flight, and then return; a chill has come on, of which I was not sensible, and in a few minutes the whole has gone back into the hive; and by the cold increasing, I have

at length perceived the cause of their return. If rain is coming on, we observe them returning home in great quantities, and hardly any abroad. The eggs of bees require this heat as much as themselves, nor will the maggot live in a cold of  $60^{\circ}$  or  $70^{\circ}$ , nor even their chrysalis. This warmth keeps the wax so soft, as to allow them to model it with ease. In glass hives, or those that have windows of glass in them, we often find a dew on the inside of the glass, especially when the glass is colder than the air within: whether this is perspiration from the bees, both from their external surface and lungs, or evaporation from the honey, I cannot say.

Bees are very cleanly animals respecting themselves, although not so respecting the remains of their young. They, I believe, seldom or never evacuate their excrement in the hive. I have known them confined many days without discharging the contents of the rectum; and the moment they got abroad, they evacuated in the air, when flying: and they appear to be very nice in their bodies, for I have often detected them cleaning one another, more especially if by accident they are besmeared with honey.

This animal may be considered alone, or so far as concerns its own œconomy as an individual, which is common to the most solitary animals; but it can also be considered as a member of society, in which it is taking an active part, and in which it becomes an object of great curiosity.

To consider this society individually, it may be said to consist of a female breeder, female non-breeders, and males: but to consider it as a community, it may be said to consist only of female breeders and non-breeders, the males answering no other purpose than simply as a male, and are only temporary; and it is probable, the female breeder is to be considered in no other light than as a layer of eggs, and that the only influences

influences the non-breeders by her presence; being only a bond of union, for without her they seem to have no tie; it is her presence that makes them an aggregate animal. May we not suppose that the offspring of the queen have an attachment to the mother, somewhat similar to the attachment of young birds to the female that brings them up? for although the times of their attachment are not equal, yet it is the dependence which each has on its mother, that constitutes the bond; for bees have none without her: however, the similarity is not exact, for young animals who have lost their nurse will herd together, and jointly make the best shifts they can, because in future they are to become single animals; but bees have an eternal instinctive dependence on the mother, probably from there not being distinct sexes. When the queen is lost, this attachment is broke; they give up industry, probably die; or, we may suppose, join some other hive. This is not the case with those of this tribe, whose queen singly forms a colony; for although the queen is destroyed, yet they go on with that work which is their lot; as the wasp, hornet, and humble bee. Most probably the whole œconomy of the bee, which we so much admire, belongs to the non-breeders, and depends on their instinctive powers being set to work by the presence of the breeders, that being their only enjoyment; therefore when we talk of the wonderful œconomy of bees, it is chiefly the labourers at large we are to admire, although the queen gets the principal credit, for the extent of their instinctive properties.

This œconomy, in its appearances and operations, is somewhat similar to human society, but very different in its first causes and mode of conduct. The human species sets up its own standard; the bee has one set up by nature, and therefore fulfils all the necessary purposes. This standard of influence, which

is the breeder, is called the queen, and I shall keep to the name, although I do not allow her voluntary influence or power.

The non-breeders are what compose the hive, or what may be called the community at large; and the males, are mere males: each of these parts of the community I shall hereafter consider separately.

To take up the common bee in any one period of the year, or, in other words, in any one month, and carry it round to the same, and observe what happens in that time, is probably including the whole œconomy of bees; for although they may live more than one year, which I believe is not known, from its not being easily ascertained, yet each year can only be a repetition of the last, as I conceive they are complete in the first; therefore the history of one year may be said to make a whole, and of course it is not material at what time in the circle we begin the history.

Perhaps the best time to begin the history of such insects, as only come to full growth the season they are bred, and live through the winter, and breed the summer following, is when they emerge from the torpid state, and begin to breed; but it might be thought that the common bee is an exception to this rule, because they begin early in the spring to breed, generally before they can be observed; and as they breed to form a colony, which is to go off from the old stock, in order to set out anew, it might seem most natural to begin with this colony, and trace it through its various actions of life for one year, when it, as it were, regenerates itself, and comes round to the same point again, that the old stock was in when it threw off this colony.

Bees, like every other animal that is taken care of in the time of breeding, or incubation, and nursed to the age of taking care of itself, cannot be said to have a period in which we can begin its natural history;



tory; but in some other insects there is such a period, for they can be traced from an egg, becoming totally independent of the parent from the moment of being laid, as the silk-worm, &c. There are three periods at which the history of the bee may commence: first, in the spring, when the queen begins to lay her eggs; in the summer, at the commencement of a new colony; or in the autumn, when they are going into winter-quarters. I shall begin the particular history of the bee with the new colony, when nothing is formed; for it begins then every thing that can possibly happen afterwards.

When a hive sends off a colony, it is commonly in the month of June, but that will vary according to the season, for in a mild spring bees sometimes swarm in the middle of May, and very often at the latter end of it. Before they come off, they commonly hang about the mouth of the hole, or door of the hive, for some days, as if they had not sufficient room within for such hot weather, which I believe is very much the case; for if cold or wet weather come on, they stow themselves very well, and wait for fine weather. But swarming appears to be rather an operation arising from necessity, for they would seem not naturally to swarm, because if they have an empty space to fill, they do not swarm; therefore by increasing the size of the hive, the swarming is prevented. This period is much longer in some than in others. For some evenings before they come off, is often heard a singular noise, a kind of ring, or sound of a small trumpet; by comparing it with the notes of the piano-forte, it seemed to be the same sound with the lower A of the treble.

The swarm commonly consists of three classes; a female, or females,\* males, and those commonly called mules, which are supposed to be of

no sex, and are the labourers; the whole about two quarts in bulk, making about six or seven thousand. It is a question that cannot easily be determined, whether this old stock sends off entirely young of the same season, and whether the whole of their young ones, or only part. As the males are entirely bred in the same season, part go off; but part must stay, and most probably it is so with the others. They commonly come off in the heat of the day, often immediately after a shower; who takes the lead I do not know, but should suppose it was the queen. When one goes off, they all immediately follow, and fly about seemingly in great confusion, although there is one principle actuating the whole. They soon appear to be directed to some fixed place; such as the branch of a tree or bush, the cavities of old trees, holes of houses leading into some hollow place; and whenever the stand is made, they all immediately repair to it, till they are all collected. But it would seem, in some cases, that they had not fixed upon any resting place before they came off, or if they had, that they were either disturbed, if it was near, or that it was at a great distance; for, after hovering some time, as if undetermined, they fly away, mount up into the air, and go off with great velocity. When they have fixed upon their future habitation, they immediately begin to make their combs, for they have the materials within themselves. I have reason to believe that they fill their crops with honey when they come away; probably from the stock in the hive. I killed several of those that came away, and found their crops full, while those that remained in the hive had their crops not near so full; some of them came away with farina on their legs, which I conceive to be rather accidental. I may just observe here, that a hive

com-

\* I have reason to believe that never more than one female comes off with a swarm.

commonly sends off two, sometimes three swarms in a summer; but that the second is commonly less than the first, and the third less than the second; and this last has seldom time to provide for the winter: they shall often threaten to swarm, but do not; whether the threatening is owing to too many bees, and their not swarming is owing to there being no queen, I do not know. It sometimes happens that the swarm shall go back again; but in such instances I have reason to think that they have lost their queen, for the hives to which their swarm have come back do not swarm the next warm day, but shall hang out for a fortnight, or more, and then swarm; and when they do, the swarm is commonly much larger than before, which makes me suspect that they waited for the queen that was to have gone off with the next swarm.

[ *To be continued.* ]

#### SUBSTANCE OF A MEMOIR ON THE COMBUSTION OF SOME SUBSTANCES IN OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID GAS.

BY M. FOURCROY.

IT was formerly supposed, that all those elastic fluids which are unfit for respiration, were equally improper for combustion. Phosphorus, however, has been found to burn in nitrous gas with greater violence than in atmospheric air; and it appears from the experiments here related, that the oxygenated muriatic acid gas, or the dephlogisticated marine acid of Scheele, forms another exception to a notion once so generally received. A wax taper immersed in this gas, continued to burn, the flame indeed became longer and smaller, and assumed a reddish hue, like that of a torch seen through a mist; but it was observed, that the wax burned faster, and that the wick consumed faster than in common air: similar phenomena occurred on repeating the experiment with a lamp; the flame was red and gloomy, surrounded with a dense vapour, and the carbonic substance of the oil seemed to be separated with greater rapidity than usual, and to be whirled in a kind of torrent around the wick. The phosphorized hydrogen, or phosphoric gas of Gengembre, on coming into contact with the oxygenated muriatic acid gas, immediately took fire, and burned with a deflagration not less violent than in the atmosphere, but

with a flame less bright than it yields in vital air. The sulphurated hydrogen, or hepatic gas, on the contrary, exhibited no inflammability on being thus mixed.

From these phenomena, M. Fourcroy concludes, that oxygen, in its union with the muriatic acid, is also combined with light and caloric, but that it contains less of the former, and the latter is more compressed than in the state of vital air. He ascribes the vapour which surrounds the flame to the carbon raised in this form faster than it can be consumed, and gradually deposited by the hydrogen, which uniting with the oxygen, forms drops of water on the side of the receiver.

This ingenious academician also discovered that some substances are inflammable in the oxygenated muriatic acid gas, which are not so in atmospheric air. A piece of phosphorus took fire in it, and burned with great violence; this is the more remarkable, as phosphorus when cold is not inflammable in vital air; and when lighted, does not burn in it with so much brightness as in the common atmosphere. Another instance of this kind occurred on bringing ammoniacal and oxygenated muriatic acid gas into contact with each other; these two elastic fluids were immediately united

united and condensed; not only great heat, but even flame was produced; a thick white vapour arose out of the receiver, and drops of water were formed on the glass in great abundance.

These phenomena are also explained by the great compression of the caloric. It is observed, that substances do not easily combine, unless their several densities be rendered nearly equal; hence phosphorus, in order to unite with and be inflamed with vital air, must be rendered less dense by heat; but in the oxygenated muriatic gas, as well as in the nitric acid, the oxygen in consequence containing less light, and having its caloric more compressed, approaches nearer to the phosphorus in density, and therefore more rapidly combines with it. The author also accounts for the inflammation of the ammoniacal gas on this principal: the flame produced by this decomposition shews, that the hydrogen of the ammoniac, separates from the oxygen of the muriatic acid gas, a certain quantity of light existing in the burning principle, and proves that oxygen is combined with less light and heat in water than the muriatic acid.

When M. Fourcroy poured the concentrated sulphuric acid on the oxygenated muriat of potash, he observed a violent effervescence, and the production of a white vapour, which though it resembled in smell

the oxygenated muriatic acid, had a character peculiar to itself; the salt and the acid both became of an orange colour. He then varied the experiment, by casting some of the muriat into the acid, the effervescence thus occasioned was scarcely perceptible; but when the mixture was stirred with a glass tube, a violent explosion took place, accompanied by transient shades of red light: after this commotion had subsided, a second agitation produced another explosion, not less violent, and accompanied with more splendid corruscations than the former. On bringing the flame of a taper near some of the mixture, which had already made one explosion, white vapour arose from it in great abundance, and a detonation took place, which broke the vessel that contained it, and was succeeded by a number of partial explosions of the parts of the mixture, which were dispersed to a considerable distance. A piece of phosphorus immersed in this vapour, took fire, and occasioned a detonation still more violent: a mixture of this muriat with the concentrated nitric acid, produced similar phenomena in a yet greater degree.

These phenomena M. Fourcroy recommends to the attention of philosophical chemists; he ascribes them to the sudden and simultaneous separation of light condensed vital air, and oxygenated muriatic acid from the muriat.

## TWO CURIOUS ACCOUNTS OF THE ZIRCHNITZER SEA, A LAKE IN CARNIOLA.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

(Concluded from Page 277.)

**T**HERE are only these sorts of fish taken in this lake, which are very well tasted. They are the *mustela fluviatilis*, or eel pout, some of them weighing two or three pounds; 2. tench, some of them weighing six or seven pounds. And,

Vol. IX.

3dly, pikes in great plenty, of ten, twenty, thirty, and some of forty pounds weight; in the bellies of these it is common to find whole ducks. Crabs are found nowhere but in the pits Kamine and Sueiskajamma; they are large, but ill tasted.

U u

The

The cause or rather modus of all these wonderful phenomena in the lake of Zirchnitz is, according to my opinion and speculations, as follows; there is under the bottom of the lake another subterraneous one, with which it communicates by the several holes described. There are also one or more lakes under the mountain Javornik, but whose surface is higher than that of the lake of Zirchnitz. This upper lake is possibly fed by some of those many rivers, which in this country bury themselves under ground, and has a passage sufficient to carry the waters they ordinarily bring into it: but when it rains, especially in thunder-showers, which are the most hasty, the water is precipitated with great violence down the steep valleys, in which are the channels of these rivulets, so that the water in this lake being increased by the sudden coming in of the rains faster than it can empty, swells presently, and finding several holes or caverns in the mountains higher than its ordinary surface, it runs over by them both into the subterraneous lake, under that of Zirchnitz, into which the water comes up by the several holes or pits in the bottom thereof, as likewise, by visible passages above-ground, such as Urainajamma, Secadulze, and Trefenz.

That some of these passages bring fish, some ducks and fish, others only water, seems to depend on the position of the inward mouths of these subterraneous channels, for if they be so constituted, as to draw off the water from the surface of the upper lake on which the ducks swim, they must needs be drawn away by the stream into these caverns, and come out with the water: but if so that the channels open into the upper lake, under the surface of the water, and from thence ascend obliquely for some space before they come to descend, then the water they carry is drawn from below the surface, and consequently can bring with it no ducks, but only fish. Those pits

which yield only water, may well be supposed to be fed by passages too narrow to let the fish pass, though their multitude may make the quantity of water they emit to be very considerable.

The manner of the falling away of the water, or emptying of the lake, I thus explain. After a long drought or want of rain, all the springs that feed the upper lake under Javornik are much diminished; so that wanting fresh supplies, it ceases to run over by the several channels but now mentioned: hence the lake of Zirchnitz, and that under it, are fed only by the eight rivulets that always fall into them, and then the water draws off faster than it comes in, both by the channels of Mala and Velka-Karlouza, as also by a concealed subterraneous passage out of the under lake, which latter alone is able to transmit more water than the said eight rivulets afford. Consequently the lake must sink, and that in a certain proportion of time, depending on the quantity of water to be evacuated, compared with the excess of that that runs out, above that that enters it in the same time. 1. Those pits that are higher are soonest dry, the lower latest, and so come to be emptied in the order above described, and when the lake is all dry, then the said rivulets soak by several little holes in the bottom, into the under lake, and all their water is carried away by the afore-said subterraneous passage.

That there is such a passage is very evident, and that it communicates under ground with the channels of Mala and Velka-Karlouza, coming out with them, as hath been already said, near St. Cantian at a rocky cave, and making the river Jesero: for when the lake of Zirchnitz is very full, and runs out of both Velka and Mala-Karlouza, the river Jesero at St. Cantian overflows, and runs with great violence; when it only runs out at Mala-Karlouza (which is somewhat lower than the other) then the water of Jesero is much less rapid;

rapid; but when the lake is so fallen, that it runs out at neither of the two, the river Jeseiro is still less, but runs with a considerable stream, till two days after the lake has been dry; after which, the said river becomes little, voiding no more water than the lake receives from the eight rivers that run into it: by which it is clearly proved, that this subterraneous passage does meet with the channels of Velka and Mala-Karlouza, and needs no farther illustration.

Hence it appears, why this lake sometimes is twice or thrice dry in a year, at other times continues full for three or four years together, but was never known to be dry for a whole year's time; for it falls dry at any time when there falls but little rain in a long space of time; and in rainy years it continues always full; but it never happens in this country, that there is a drought for a whole year together.

The ducks I have so often mentioned, and which are cast out with the water, are generated in the lake under the mountain Javornik; when they first come out they swim well, but are stark blind, and have no feathers on them, or but few, and therefore are easily caught; but in fourteen days time they get feathers, and recover their sight yet sooner, and afterwards fly away in flocks. They are black, only white on the forehead, their bodies not big, resembling ordinary wild-ducks, and are of a good taste, but too fat, having near as much fat as lean.

I killed some of them as soon as they had been cast out at Sekadulze, and opening their bodies, I found in them much sand, and in some few, small fishes, in others green stuff like grass or herbs, which was the more strange, because I never found any green thing growing in any of our subterraneous grottos or lakes in Carniola: I tried also to procure some of the fish at the time of their being cast out, to open them, and see what they live upon, but not-

withstanding all my endeavours, I could not get any of them to satisfy my curiosity withal.

Almost every year at a hole in the mountain called Storveg, about half a German mile from the lake of Zirchnitz, near the town of Laas, whenever there happens great floods of rain, this sort of ducks is cast out in great abundance, by the water gushing out with much force. I conceive that this cavern Storveg is another passage out of the same lake under Javornik, that overflows and fills up our lake of Zirchnitz; but this being somewhat higher, it never runs out unless the said lake be more than ordinary swelled by the violence of the rains. The casting out of great numbers of ducks here is so common, that it is looked upon as no rarity.

It may seem strange and hard to believe, that there should be such subterraneous lakes and channels as we may suppose; but besides that, without them it would be impossible to account for all these several effects which are most true, and which I myself have observed: there is a most notable instance of the like things found in the subterraneous cavern called the Grotto Podpetfchio.

This grotto is in Carniola, in the parish of Guetenfeld, distant four German miles from the city Labac: there is a hole or entrance into the rocky mountain, has a great cavern in the mountain, capable to hold above a hundred horsemen, and a channel big enough for a man to pass by, as far as the lake, out of which lake the inhabitants hereabouts draw all their water, having none nearer, and fetch it with lighted torches. Into this lake the water runs with a great stream by a channel; and out of this lake it falls down a precipice into a great cavern, with so much noise, that the discharge of a pistol would not be heard here. There is likewise another channel, which tends upwards obliquely, and leads to the great lake,

U u 2 whole



whose length and breadth are hitherto undiscovered; I looked about it with many lights, and could see nothing but water, and throwing stones several ways as far as I could, I heard them all fall in the water: and I found the depth of it near the bank to be ten cubits, and doubt not but it is much deeper in the middle.

The country people told me, that this channel affords always an equal quantity of water, or else is quite dry; and that sometimes it will cease to run in a moment, and continue dry for some weeks, and then on a sudden it will run again with great force, so as the noise thereof frequently frights the people as they come for water.

Out of the cave there is another channel, which is divided into three others. This channel tends obliquely downwards, till it comes to a running water, from whence one may go further on, where looking through a little hole, one may see another little lake.

All the channels I have mentioned, are formed in a very hard rock, and are smooth or polished, as if cut by men's hands. These may be seen by any one that will go with lighted

torches; and there are many such in which I have not been.

If any one would carry a boat to the lake, and would row upon it, I doubt not but he might find several curious things. I believe this subterraneous lake to be a German mile long; for from this grotto Podpetchio, at a mile distance, there is a village called Kompale, whose inhabitants have no other water than what they fetch out of a hole in the rock, going with lighted torches, by a large channel, to a great lake under ground. I measured with good geometrical instruments, such as miners use, the level of these two lakes of Podpetchio and Kompale, and found them to be in one horizon; and this I did twice, both when the channel at Podpetchio run, and when it did not run. When it began to run, I found that the lake was two cubits higher than it had been before; when it ceased to run, I came again on purpose to observe it, and found that then also the other lake at Kompale was in the same level; from whence it is most certain, that these two are only one continued subterranean lake.

## HISTORY OF THE HORSE IN ENGLAND.

BY THE LATE RICHARD BERENGER, ESQ.

[ *Continued from Page 284.* ]

**A**S hunting was the chief amusement of the nobility and gentry, they had a method of trying the speed and goodness of the horses destined to that sport.

It was called the train-scent, and so denominated, because the scent which the hounds hunted, proceeded from some animal which had previously been trained along the fields, and over hedges and ditches, according to the pleasure of the person who trained or dragged it after him. The rival horses were to follow the hounds which hunted this scent, and give proofs of their speed and merit,

in competition with one another. Of all the chaces this was reckoned the swiftest and most trying, because the scent lies the hottest; so that the hounds run all the time at the utmost stretch, and the horses must have been exerted to their utmost powers to keep pace with them. Besides, in this manner of hunting, the sport was always ready, when a fox or hare might not easily be found; and this way of matching and running hunters, in order to try their speed against one another, while they followed the dogs, was thought to be more cheering, both to the riders

riders and horses, than to make them run simply against one another, or against time, as the present practice is.

There was likewise another chace, called by horsemen the wild-goose chace, and thus described.\* This chace is never used but in matches only; where neither the hunting the hare, nor the running train-scents, are able to decide which horse is better. In this case horsemen found out this chace, which is called the wild-goose chace, from its resemblance to the flight of wild-geese, which, for the most part ever fly after one another, and keep an equal distance as it were from one another. So in this chace, after the horses are started, and have run twelve score yards, then, which ever horse can get the leading, the other is bound to follow wherever he goes, and that too within a certain distance, as twice or thrice his length, or else to be beaten up (whipped) by the triers (judges) which ride by to see fair play: and if either horse get before the other twelve score yards, or according as the match is made, then the hinder horse loses the match; and if the horse which at the beginning was behind, can get before that which first led, then is he likewise bound to follow, till he can either get before, or else the match be lost and won. It is well known that this chace still preserves its name in a common proverb, and that many people follow it, without knowing that they do so.

In the succeeding reign of James, horfmanfhip began to difplay and enlarge itfelf more confiderably than in any former time; having received many additions and refinements from the different mafters who taught and praftifed it throughout Europe.

Public races were now eftablifhed, and fuch horfes as had given proofs of fuperior abilities, became known and famous, and their breed was cultivated, and their pedigrees, as well

as thofe of their pofterity, in imitation, perhaps, of the Arabian manner, preferved and recorded with the greateft exactnefs. Garterly, in Yorkfhire. Croydon, near London, and fometimes Theobalds, on Enfield Chace, when the king was refident, were the fports where the races were run.

They were performed very nearly under the fame rules, and upon the fame principles as at prefent; and the horfes were prepared for running, by all the difcipline of food, phyfic, airing, fweats, and clothing, which compofes the prefent fystem.

The weight alfo which each horfe was to carry, was rigidly adjusted, the ufual weight of the riders being ftated at ten ftones, who were put into fcales, and weighed before they ftarted. All, or the larger part of the moft famous races through the kingdom, were called bell-courfes, the prize and reward of the conquering horfes, being a bell; and it is fubmitted as a conjecture, whether the phrafe of bearing the bell, which implies being comparatively the beft, or moft excellent, and corresponds with the expreffion of bearing the palm among the ancients, as a reward decreed to the fwifteft horfe in a race, is not more aptly deduced from this cuftom, and more forcibly applied, than from the method of tying a bell round the neck of the fheep, which leads the flock, and is therefore accounted the beft.

This king bought an Arabian horfe of one Mr. Markham, a merchant, and gave the large price of five hundred pound for the purchafe. He was the firft of that country which England had ever feen; and it is furprifing, confidering the feveral expeditions to the Holy Land, and other parts of the Eaft, that none had ever been imported before.

The Duke of Newcaftle, who fpeaks from his own knowledge, which was confummate, defcribes him to have been of a bay colour, a little

\* Markham's Cavalierie, lib. iii. p. 11.

little horse, and no rarity for shape; no more than was the famous horse since known by the name of the Godolphin Arabian. As to the horse bought by King James, it is to be suspected that he was bad and worthless in himself, or else his country cannot have all that merit which is so lavishly bestowed upon it, for its natural properties in producing such superior horses. He was trained for a course, but disgraced his country, and was beat by every horse which run against him. This account is given by that eminent judge of horses and horsemanship, who seems not to confide in the relations given of the Arabian horses, by travellers and compilers of voyages, which, from the ignorance of the reporters, are generally too superficial and extravagant, to deserve much attention, and never give any information, which is sufficiently clear and authentic, to enable us to decide upon their merit, which, it is probable, if it could be exactly tried and stated, would not be found to be so superior to the English horses, as it is represented, either in speed, resolution, or patience of fatigue.

The son and heir apparent of James, Henry Prince of Wales, had an early and eager disposition to those exercises, which tend at once to engage and employ the mind, form the body, and add grace to strength and activity. For these reasons he cultivated horsemanship with equal pleasure and application, and the art would have boasted in him its greatest ornament and support, had not an untimely death deprived the world of this amiable prince, and the manege of an affectionate and zealous protector. All that is known of him, is, that he loved it extremely, that he procured several foreign horses, as the fittest to be employed in it from their natural talents, and the gracefulness of their motion; and

that Henry IV. of France, sent an experienced and eminent horseman, whose name was St. Antoine, to instruct him in the art. There was a riding-house in St. James's palace, in which this young prince exercised himself, and received his lessons.

Several other writers upon the subject of horses, speak of his love and fondness of them, both in the manege and hunting, and conceived great hopes of the advantages which the kingdom would reap from the studs which he formed, and the races he established.

Hence Withers introduces Britannia thus lamenting his death:

"Alas, who now shall grace my tournaments,

"Or honour me with deeds of chivalrie?\*

In this reign also the merit of the English horses began to be so acknowledged, that many were purchased, and sent into France, where they continued to be so much valued and admired, that a great commerce is still carried on, and numbers yearly sent into that kingdom, as well as into Germany, Holland, Poland, and other places.

Bassompierre,† in his memoirs, gives an account of their introduction, and of the name given to them, at their first appearance in France. He says, that the court being at Fontainebleau, it was the fashion to play for large and serious sums, and the circulation being very brisk, they called the counters which represented money *Quinterots*, because they passed and repassed from one player to another, with as much quickness and rapidity, as the English horses were known to run, and which were called *Quinterots*, from the name of the person, who the year before had brought them into France; which (he adds) were so admired for their speed, that English horses have, since that time, been always employed in hunting and journeys; a practice till then unknown.

Towards

\* Prince Henry's Obsequy. Eleg. 31, page 358. Lond. 1617.

† Mémoires, vol. i. page 206.

Towards the latter part of this reign it appears, that the English method of keeping and ordering their horses was thought so proper and judicious, as to be recommended and copied in France, and, perhaps, elsewhere. It is safest to house and rub an horse after being heated, as the English hunting and running-horses are, says a French writer upon this subject. Surfleet's translation of *Lietand's Maison Rustique*. The translation of this book was published in the year 1616; and the original must have been a book of some credit at that time, otherwise, it is to be supposed, an Englishman would not have thought it worth while to give a translation of it.

The reign of Charles was embroiled and distracted by scenes which were brought too home to his own business and bosom, to allow him to attend to those arts and improvements which are the children of peace, and must be nursed by leisure and tranquillity.

This king, like his brother Henry, was nevertheless very fond of the manege, and, according to the testimonies of historians, a very judicious and accomplished horseman.

As an \* instance of his attention to the art of riding, considered in a public and national light, he issued a proclamation in the third year of his reign, which enjoins the use of bits instead of snaffles, which, at that time, were used in the army. The proclamation sets forth, that his majesty finding by experience, that such horses as are employed in the service, are more apt and fit to be managed by such as shall ride them, being accustomed to the bit, than the snaffle, he, therefore, strictly charges and commands, that no person (other than such only as his majesty, in respect of their attendance on his royal person, in times of disport, or otherwise, shall licence thereunto) shall in riding use any snaffles, but bits, only.

This regulation was judicious, for bits were more becoming, and better suited to the troops, as snaffles are in general fitter for times of disport, by which (it is presumed) racing and hunting were meant, and for which they were reserved.

The fondness for English horses among the French, which began in the preceding reign, continued in this, and the English understood the merit of their own horses so well, as to be prudently jealous of their exportation, and encrease in the French dominions.

In spite, however, of this jealousy and strictness, not to let English horses be sent into France, it should seem that there was no unwillingness to let foreign horses be brought into England; for we find that this prince, in the sixth year of his reign, granted a special licence to William Smith, and others, to import horses, mares, and geldings into this kingdom: the said William Smith, and others, are also enjoined to import coach-horses, coach-mares, and coach-geldings, which are not to be under fourteen hands in height, nor under the age of three years, nor exceeding seven: † and from the frequent importation of horses by our kings, it seems probable, that they set a greater value upon foreign horses, than on those of their own country; and there are not the least traces of the English horses being esteemed in the early parts of Rymer's Collection.

We learn likewise from a memorial presented to Charles by Sir Edward Harwood, ‡ touching the state of the kingdom, that there was a great deficiency of good and stout horses for its defence, inasmuch that it was a question if it could have furnished two thousand, that would have been equal to two thousand French: the cause of this evil, the memorialist takes to have been, the strong addiction which the nation had to racing and hunting horses, which,

\* From the original in the Coll. of the Society of Antiquar. No. 74.

† Rymer, vol. 3. p. 131.

‡ Harleian Misc. vol. 4. p. 260.

which, for the sake of swiftness, were all of a lighter and weaker mould; and he proposes, as a remedy of this grievance (and most infallible it would have been), that noblemen and gentlemen, instead of making races for bells\* (as before mentioned) should keep stronger horses, which might be fit for war, and train them and their riders in military exercises. This wholesome

advice would probably have been pursued; but the remainder of the reign was so stormy, that men were forced to sell the pasture, to buy the feed, and no regard could be paid to any improvement or useful design, the advancement of which generally demands much preparation, and softer times than this period was able to boast.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## ACCOUNT OF THE GERMAN THEATRE.

BY MR. HENRY MACKENZIE.

FROM THE TRANSACTIONS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY AT EDINBURGH.

[ *Continued from Page 252.* ]

**B**UT to return to the narrative of the tragedy.

His younger brother Francis having succeeded in removing this favourite of his father, now looks to the death of the old man as the complete accomplishment of his wishes to attain the fortune and honours of his family. To effect this hellish purpose, he makes use of his father's still remaining tenderness for that very son whom the traitor's arts had driven from his love. He employs one Herman, a tool of his villainy, to personate a soldier, who had been the companion of Charles, and to relate a fabricated story of the sufferings and death of that unfortunate young man, who, according to him, had been reduced, by the severity of his father, to the most extreme and pitiable indigence, from which he had at last been relieved by death, having fallen fighting gallantly in an action with the infidels, and in his last words had breathed out the name of his father and of his Amelia. The old Count feels this relation as his inhuman son expected; he faints at its close, and is

carried off lifeless from the stage. The traitor Francis reaps the fruit of his villainy; he reaps, but his conscience does not permit him to enjoy it; and he is ever after presented as the martyr of remorse, haunted by the terrors of inward guilt. His associate Herman appears to yield to contrition; he braves the anger of his lord, and resolves to embrace the first opportunity of counteracting his villainy.

Though the great and the terrible be the most prominent features of this drama, there are scenes in which the pathetic and the tender prevail in a very uncommon degree; and the impression they make in the reader is heightened by the contrast of that bold unbending spirit which he sees melted by their force. One of these, the second scene of the third act, is so striking, that I cannot forbear laying it before the Society in English. They will make allowance for what it must lose in this form, when they consider that it is the translation of a translation.

The band are encamped on a height on the banks of the Danube, after

\* About the latter end of this King's reign, it was customary to have races performed in Hyde-Park. This appears from a comedy called the Merry Beggars, or Jovial Crew, written in the year 1641—"Shall we make a fling to London (says one of the characters of the piece), and see how the spring appears there in the Spring Garden, and in Hyde-Park, to see the Races, horse and foot."



after a hard-fought battle with a party of Bohemian horse, which had been sent to take them; but which, by the unparalleled valour and exertions of Moor and his friends, they had defeated. He enters, overcome with fatigue and thirst.

"I must rest here, (*throwing himself on the ground*); my limbs are broken with fatigue, and my parched tongue cleaves to my mouth. I would have asked some of you to fetch me a little water from that river, but you too are weary almost to death. (*One of the band goes out, unperceived by Moor, to fetch him some water.*)

"*Grim, (another of his band)* 'Tis a long time since our flasks were empty of wine. How majestically the sun sets there below!

"*Moor, (looking steadfastly on the setting sun)* 'Tis thus that a hero dies, and the nations admire his fall!

"G. It seems to move you.

"M. In my youth, it was my favourite idea to live like him, (*looking earnestly on the sun*) to die like him! 'Twas the fancy of a young man.

"G. 'Twas even so.

"M. There was a time—(*drawing his hat over his eyes*)—leave me alone, my friends.

"G. Moor, Moor! do you aught? Your colour changes.

"M. There was a time when I could not sleep if I had forgot my prayers before I laid me down.

"G. 'Tis folly all—Would you, like a boy, be schooled by the remembrance of your infant days?

"M. My infant days! Oh! (*leaning his head on the bosom of Grim.*)

"G. Think of these no more.

"Be not a child again, I pray you.

"M. A child again! Would that I were!

"G. Rouse yourself, for shame!

"See how the landscape smiles—how beautiful the evening looks!

"M. Aye, my friends, this earth is so beautiful—

"G. Why, that is well.

"M. This scene so grand—

VOL. IX,

"G. You speak it truly. I love to hear you talk thus.

"M. And what am I, in this world that is so beautiful! A thing so vile on this magnificent work of heaven!—The prodigal son!

"G. Moor! Moor!

"M. My innocence—give me back my innocence. Look how every thing in nature is cheered by the smile of spring. Why in this air, so pure to them, should I breathe the blasting smoke of hell! When all around us are happy—when gentle peace has united them—the world one blessed family, and its Father there above—who is not my father! I alone shut out—the prodigal son—excluded from the portion of his children—(*shrinking back with horror*) surrounded with crimes—with murder—bound to them with chains of iron.

"G. (*to the rest of the band*) I never saw him thus before.

"M. (*with a voice of tenderness*) Ah! if it were possible for me to be born again—to be born a beggar, the meanest thing that were not a guilty one! With the labour of these hands I would purchase the weariness of peace. Oh! that with the sweat of my brow, though that sweat were blood, I could buy one guiltless hour—the luxury of one tear!

"G. Patience, friends; his fit is almost over.

"M. There was a time when my tears flowed freely. Oh! peaceful days!—that saw me in my father's house, in my native fields!—Ye smiling fields!—ye valleys made for enthusiasm to wander in! Scenes of my happy infancy—will ye never return? Will ye never breathe on this burning bosom your gales of peace and joy?—Nature, why art thou dark around me?—They will never, never return; never on this bosom will they breathe—they are gone—gone for ever!"

X x

Subdued

Subdued by the tenderness of the recollection which this scene expresses, Charles visits his native castle in disguise; he finds his father dead, his brother Francis in possession of his inheritance, and his mistress ready to take the veil. After yielding for a while to those softer feelings which the scenes of his infancy recal, he recollects the outcast abandonment of his own situation, makes himself known, at the instant of parting, to his Amelia, and flies to rejoin his desperate associates.

In this situation of things, the fourth act commences. The scene is of that savage kind, which prepares the imagination for the horrors to ensue. It is night; and the remains of the band are assembled on a desert heath, near to the ruins of an ancient tower, round which the winds whistle, and the owl shrieks. They had watched three days and nights of danger and alarm, and all, except their unhappy chief, whom remorse and anguish keep awake, yield to their fatigue, and lay themselves on the ground to sleep. Moor remains alone, and walks to and fro, like the sovereign spirit of the night, revolving in his troubled, but daring soul, this world and the next. In this world, he has now nothing left to hope, and he looks, with desperate calmness, on the dark and unknown gulph of that to come. His soliloquy is of that sublime and broken sort which expresses the agitation of a great but erring mind, yielding to remorse for crimes which have stained his life, but not corrupted his soul, and left him, amidst the outrages of violence and vice, the sentiments and the sufferings of virtue and of feeling. After a pause of gloomy meditation, he breaks out in the following words, (to my translation of which the Society will afford the indulgence I formerly solicited.)

—“A long, long night!—on which no morning will ever dawn! Think ye that Moor will tremble? Shades of the victims of this assassinating sword! I see your bleed-

ing wounds, I look on your livid lips, and hear the last agonizing groans they breathe—but I tremble not. These are but links of that eternal chain, which he who sits in yonder heaven holds in his hand. He stamped these horrors on my destiny. Even amidst the innocent, the happy days of my unsullied infancy, his eye saw them, and sealed them on my fate. (*He draws a pistol.*) The barrier betwixt eternity and time, this little instrument can burst—and then—Thou dread unknown! whither wilt thou lead? where wilt thou place me? If thou leav’st me this conscious self, ’tis that must create my heaven or my hell. Amidst the waste of a world which thine anger has destroyed, I can people the silent void with thought. Or wilt thou, in new and untrod states, lead me through various misery to nothing? Thou mayest annihilate my being; but while this soul is left, will not its freedom and its force remain? ’Tis equal where—(*putting up his pistol*) I will not now shrink from the sufferings of the present—the destiny of Moor shall be fulfilled.”

He is silent—he hears the tread of approaching feet, and presently a figure glides before him, and knocks at the grated wicket of the tower. The figure speaks, “Rise, man of sorrow, inhabitant of the tower, thy repast is here.” A feeble voice answers from the dungeon within—“Herman, is it thou?—Bring’st thou, like the prophet’s raven, his food to a lingering wretch, that lives by the crumbs which thy pity affords him?”—Moor, who had shrunk back in amazement, now advances, and desires the man to stop. That man is Herman. He draws his sword; but is almost instantly disarmed. “What art thou,” says the astonished Herman, “whose touch withers like that of death? Art thou the demon of this horrid place? the spirit of this murderous tower?”

“I am,”

"I am," says Moor; "the exterminating angel is my name; and yet I have flesh and bones like thee. But what wretch is in that tower? I will burst his chains." He draws from his pockets the paskies which his profession employs; he opens the tower; the skeleton figure of a famished wretch creeps from the dungeon—"Horrible phantom!" says the astonished Moor, in a low and stifled voice, "my father!"

It is his father, whom the inhuman Francis (taking advantage of the long faint into which the account of his son's death had thrown him) had buried alive in the dungeon of the tower. When Charles is informed of this, and his other treacheries, by Herman, the penitent associate of his villainy, he wakes his band and, in the rage of filial revenge, dispatches one of the boldest of the troop to force the castle of his brother, and bring him alive before them. The old man is still ignorant of his deliverer's being his son, and waits, terrified and weak, the disclosing of this mystery of justice and of vengeance.

The last act opens with a scene in the castle of the guilty Francis, who is now in possession of the county of Moor. He is exhibited in all the dismay and distraction of awakened remorse. After some incoherent dialogue (wrought up with the liveliest circumstances of guilty terror) with a servant, who had watched his sleep, and followed him, when he had started from his bed, into the saloon of the castle; they are told by a frightened domestic, that a troop of horsemen are approaching at a gallop, with terrifying shouts. The Count is petrified by his guilty fears, and cannot give orders for defence. His followers, however, for a while dispute the passage of the band, till the castle is set on fire. Its master is still more lost in the horrors of his situation; and, after an unavailing request to his servant, to save him from the vengeance of his ene-

mies, by putting him to death, is left alone amidst the approaching flames, wishing to die, yet dreading death, till he hears the thunder of the band at the gate, which shakes, bursts, and the entering foe seizes him alive, and carries him off, according to the command of his captain.

The scene changes to the heath, where Moor and his old father are discovered amidst the war of contending feelings with which the son is torn. He often resolves to disclose himself to his father: but the consciousness of his fallen and abandoned state with-holds him. The poet has contrived, by placing the father and son in this particular situation, to infuse into this scene a degree of tenderness which melts the heart, mixed with a horror which chills the imagination. When the old man complains that he has now no son to close his eyes, his son throws himself on the neck of his father, yet is unable to discover that this wretch, this robber, this assassin, is his Charles. At that moment, a distant noise is heard, and presently the dim gleam of torches begins to illuminate the scene around them. The glare of their light increases; the voices are heard more near; the accustomed music of their savage triumph sounds, and the faithful band of Moor, true to their commission of vengeance, bring the criminal Francis chained before his father and his brother. It is impossible to convey by narrative the horrid sublimity of the situation which this scene presents, or of those expressions to which the wounded sensibility of Moor, wrought up to the most insatiable revenge against the author of his father's misery and his own, gives birth. The reader could hardly conceive any modern imagination, how pregnant soever with tragic terrors, to produce a scene that could vie with the dread picture of the fourth act; when he has read the fifth, he will find the horror equalled, and the interest surpassed.

Moor leads the wretched Francis before his father. The old man is willing to forgive him; but his brother has devoted him to vengeance. He desires the band to lead his father to a remote part of the wood; and then, settling the fury of his revenge into the terrible solemnity of dispassionate justice, he places his brother in the midst of his fierce associates, and desires them to pronounce sentence on his crimes. They consult some time together on an adequate punishment; and then, felicitating themselves on the thought, they throw him into the dungeon in which this barbarous parricide had buried his father. The old man is brought in. He feels the yearnings of paternal affection for his guilty son, and exclaims against the cruelty of his avengers. Moor throws himself into his arms, and discovers to him his favourite, his Charles. Just then, Amelia, who had escaped from the castle of his brother, enters, and runs to embrace her lover and his father. The father feels all the pleasure of his son and his niece restored, and fondly anticipates the felicity they are to enjoy. But Moor bids them check the expectation of happiness, and look only for desperation and horror. "Your paternal curse," says he, "condemned me to perdition. These men you see are robbers—murderers—your son is their chief." The exhausted strength of the old man cannot stand the shock; he expires in the arms of his son. His mistress still survives; and though dumb with terror and grief, folds him in her arms, and shews the most ardent affection for her Charles. Warm in his love, as in every other feeling, Moor had doated on her to distraction; he forgets himself in her embraces, and for a moment thinks he will live and be happy with his Amelia. "Come from her arms," cries one of the boldest of his troop, "or I will speak what shall freeze your blood." "Think,"

exclaims another, (while they level their pieces at his head) "of your vow to be ours for ever. Ours you are, and heaven nor hell can win you from us." Their voices rouse the remembrance of his situation. But his soul is too proud to yield to threats. "You are murderers," says he, "and I am your chief. Down with these arms, and know your master." Awed by the sounds they are accustomed to obey, the banditti lower their arms. "To be great, Moor must be free. I would not give this triumph for all the elysium of love. (*He draws his sword.*) Call not that madness of which your souls want strength to see the grandeur. The greatness of despair is above the ken of wisdom. On actions such as this, reflection must follow, not wisdom pause."

He plunges his sword into the bosom of Amelia. Struck with the barbarous heroism of the deed, his associates fall at his feet, acknowledge his unparalleled fidelity, and vow to be his slaves for ever. "No," says he, with a determined and petrifying calmness; "the destiny of Moor is accomplished. Thus far it was in human power to go, and thus far he has gone; but here his course is closed, and his genius cries out, *All is consummated.*" He dismisses his band, except two favourite officers, with an exhortation to use their invincible courage in the service of their country. To these two favourites, whose souls are not so deeply tinged in blood, he bequeaths his paternal domain, and desires them to leave him, and to devote their future lives to virtue and obedience to the laws. "And I too," he concludes, "will obey the laws; I will bear the sternest punishment of their decree." And he goes to deliver himself up to justice.

I have ventured this long and particular account of the tragedy in question, because it appears to me one of the most uncommon productions

ductions of untutored genius that modern times can boast. Confessedly irregular and faulty, both in plan and conduct, it were needless, and perhaps unfair, to offer any remark on its defects. But its power over the heart and the imagination must be acknowledged. Every body has heard the anecdote of its effects on the scholars at the school of Fribourg, where it was represented soon after its first appearance. They were so struck and captivated with the grandeur of the character of its hero Moor, that they agreed to form a band like his in the forests of Bohemia, had elected a young nobleman for their chief, and had pitched on a beautiful young lady for his Amelia, whom they were to carry off from her parents' house, to accompany their flight. To the accomplishment of this design, they had bound themselves by the most solemn and tremendous oaths; but the conspiracy was discovered by an accident, and its execution prevented.

The energy of this tragedy's effect is not to be wondered at, especially on young minds, whose imaginations are readily inflamed by the enthusiasm of gigantic enterprise and desperate valour, whose sensibility is easily excited by the sufferings of a great unhappy mind, and who feel a sort of dignity and pride

in leaving the beaten road of worldly prudence, though the path by which they leave it may sometimes deviate from moral rectitude. But hence, to some parts of an audience, the danger of a drama such as this. It covers the natural deformity of criminal actions with the veil of high sentiment and virtuous feeling, and thus separates (if I may be pardoned the expression) the *moral sense* from that morality which it ought to produce. This the author has, since its first publication, been candid enough to acknowledge, and reprobates, in terms perhaps more strong than it deserves, his own production as of a very pernicious tendency. He has left his native country, Wirtemberg, from which I believe indeed some consequences of the publication of this tragedy had driven him, and now lives at Manheim, where he publishes a periodical work, and has written one or two other tragedies, which have a high reputation. If his genius can accommodate itself to better subjects, and to a more regular conduct of the drama, no modern poet seems to possess powers so capable of bending the mind before him, of rousing its feelings by the elevation of his sentiments, or of thrilling them with the terrors of his imagination.

## STATE OF RELIGION IN ABYSSINIA.

BY MR. BRUCE.

[Concluded from Page 255.]

THE two natures in Christ, the two persons, their unity, their equality, the inferiority of the manhood, doctrines, and definitions of the time of St. Athanasius, are all wrapt up in tenfold darkness, and inextricable from amidst the thick clouds of heresy and ignorance of language. Nature is often mistaken for person, and person for nature; the same of the human substance.

It is monstrous to hear their reasoning upon it. One would think that every deficient monk, every time he talks, purposely broached some new heresy. Scarce one of them that ever I conversed with, and those of the very best of them, would suffer it to be said, that Christ's body was perfectly like ours. Nay, it was easily seen that, in their hearts, they went still further,



ther, and were very loth to believe, if they did believe it at all, that the body of the Virgin Mary and St. Anne were perfectly human.

Not to trouble the reader further with these uninteresting particulars and distinctions, I shall only add, that the Jesuits, in the account they give of the heresies, ignorance, and obstinacy of the Abyssinian clergy, have not misrepresented them, in the imputations made against them, either in point of faith or of morals.

It was maintained by the Jesuits, that in Abyssinia, once every year, they baptised all grown people, or adults. I shall, as briefly as possible, set down what I myself saw while on the spot.

The small river, running between the town of Adowa and the church, had been dammed up for several days; the stream was scanty, so that it scarcely overflowed. It was in places three feet deep, in some, perhaps, four, or little more. Three large tents were pitched the morning before the feast of Epiphany; one on the north for the priests to repose in, during intervals of the service; and besides this, one to communicate in: on the south there was a third tent for the monks and priests of another church, to rest themselves in their turn. About twelve o'clock at night the monks and priests met together, and began their prayers and psalms at the water-side, one party relieving each other. At dawn of day the governor, Welleta Michael, came thither with some soldiers to raise men for Ras Michael, then on his march against Waragna Fasil, and sat down on a small hill by the water-side, the troops all skirmishing on foot and on horseback around them.

As soon as the sun began to appear, three large crosses of wood were carried by three priests, dressed in their sacerdotal vestments, and who, coming to the side of the river, dip their crosses into the water, and all this time the firing, skirmishing, and praying, went on together. The

priests with the crosses returned, one of their number before them carrying something less than an English quart of water in a silver cup or chalice; when they were about fifty yards from Welleta Michael, that general stood up, and the priest took as much water as he could hold in his hands, and sprinkled it upon his head, holding the cup at the same time to Welleta Michael's mouth to taste; after which the priest received it back again, saying, at the same time, "Gzier y'barak," which is simply, "May God bless you." Each of the three crosses were then brought forward to Welleta Michael, and he kissed them. The ceremony of sprinkling the water was then repeated to all the great in the tent, all cleanly dressed as in gala. Some of them, not content with asperision, received the water in the palms of their hands joined, and drank it there; more water was brought for those that had not partaken of the first; and, after the whole of the governor's company was sprinkled, the crosses returned to the river, their bearers singing *hallelujahs*, and the skirmishing and firing continuing.

Jamic, my Greek friend, had recommended me to the priest of Adowa; and, as the governor had placed me by him, I had an opportunity, for both these reasons, of being served among the first. My friend the priest sprinkled water upon my head, and gave me his blessing in the same words he had used to the others; but, as I saw it was not necessary to drink, I declined putting the cup to my lips, for two reasons; one, because I knew the Abyssinians have a scruple to eat or drink after strangers; the other, because I apprehended the water was not perfectly clear; for no sooner had the crosses first touched the pool, and the cup filled from the clean part for the governor, than two or three hundred boys, calling themselves *deacons*, plunged in with only a white cloth, or rag, tied



tied round their middle; in all other respects they were perfectly naked. All their friends and relations (indeed every body) went close down to the edge of the pool, when water was thrown upon them, and first decently enough by boys of the town, and those brought on purpose as deacons; but, after the better sort of people had received the asperision, the whole was turned into a riot, the boys, muddying the water, threw it round them upon every one they saw well-dressed or clean. The governor retreated first, then the monks, and then the crosses, and left the brook in possession of the boys and blackguards, who rioted there till two o'clock in the afternoon.

I must, however, observe, that, a very little time after the governor had been sprinkled, two horses and two mules, belonging to Ras Michael and Ozera Esther, came and were washed. Afterwards the soldiers went in and bathed their horses and guns; those who had wounds bathed them also. I saw no women in the bath uncovered, even to the knee; nor did I see any person of the rank of decent servants go into the water at all, except with the horses. Heaps of platters and pots, that had been used by Mahometans or Jews, were brought thither likewise to be purified; and thus the whole ended.

I saw this ceremony performed afterwards at Kahha, near Gondar, in presence of the king, who drank some of the water, and was sprinkled by the priests; then took the cup in his hand, and threw the rest that was left upon Amha Yafous, saying, "I will be your deacon;" and this was thought a high compliment, the priest giving him his blessing at the same time, but offering him no more water.

The Abyssinians received the holy sacrament in both kinds in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon; whatever they may pretend some mixture seems

necessary to keep it from fermentation in the state that it is in, unless the dried cluster is fresh bruised just before it is used, for it is little more fluid than the common marmalade of confectiioners, but it is perfectly the grape as it grew, bruised, stones and skin together. Some means, however, have been used, as I suppose, to prevent fermentation, and make it keep; and though this is constantly denied, I have often thought I tasted a flavour that was not natural to the grape itself.

It is a mistake that there is no wine in Abyssinia, for a quantity of strong excellent wine is made at Druda, south-west from Gondar about thirty miles, which would more than supply the quantity necessary for the celebration of the eucharist in all Abyssinia, twenty times over. The people themselves are not fond of wine, and plant the vine in one place only; and in this they have been imitated by the Egyptians, their colony; but a small black grape, of an excellent flavour, grows plentifully wild in every wood in Tigré.

Large pieces of bread are given to the communicants, in proportion to their quality; and I have seen great men, who, though they open their mouths as wide as conveniently a man can do, yet from the respect the priest bore him, such a portion of the loaf was put into his mouth that water ran from his eyes, from the incapacity of chewing it, which, however, he does as indecently, and with full as much noise, as he eats at table.

After receiving the sacrament of the eucharist in both kinds, a pitcher of water is brought, of which the communicant drinks a large draught, and well he needs it, to wash down the quantity of bread he has just swallowed. He then retires from the steps of the inner division upon which the administering priest stands, and turning his face to the wall of the church, in private says some prayer with seeming decency and attention.

The

The Romanists doubt of the validity of the Abyssinian consecration of the elements, because in their liturgy it is plainly said, "Lord put thy hand upon this cup, and bless it, and sanctify it, and purify it, that it may be thy holy blood;" and of the bread they say, "bless this saucer or plate, that in it may be made thy holy body." And in their prayer they say, "change this bread that it may be thy pure body, which is joined with this cup of thy precious blood." The Jesuits doubt of the validity of this consecration, because it is said, "this bread is my body;" and over the wine, "this cup is my blood;" whereas to operate a true transubstantiation they should say over the bread, "this is my body."

For my own part, I leave it to the reverend fathers, who are the best judges, what is necessary to operate this miracle of transubstantiation. The reality of the thing itself is denied by all protestant churches, has been often doubted by others, has been ridiculed by lay writers, and can never be a matter I believe of thorough conviction, much less of proof to any. The dignity of the subject on which it touches, nearly as well as tenderness for our brethren on the continent, an article of whose

faith it is, should always screen it from being treated with pleasantry, whatever we believe, or whether we believe it or not.

M. Ludolf thinks that the words I have set down are a proof that the Abyssinians do not believe in transubstantiation; for my part, for those very words I cannot think any thing clearer than that they do. The bread is on the plate: they pray that a plate may be blessed; that it may be God's holy body: and of the wine they say, "that it may be thy holy blood:" and in their prayers they say, "change this bread, that it may be thy body;" and again, "may the Holy Ghost shine upon this bread, that it may be made the body of Christ our God."

With all respect to M. Ludolf's opinion, I must think, that though the benediction prayed upon the patine spoon and chalice is but an awkward expression, yet if I understand the language, *converte et immetetur* are literal translations of the Ethiopic, and seem to pray for a transubstantiation as directly as words will admit, whether they believe it or not; nor as far as I know, can any stronger or more expressive words be found to substitute in their place.

## HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF ENGLISH MONEY.

[Continued from Page 280.]

**HENRY VI.** The guardians of this prince finding a necessity to raise the value of the noble, or lessen its weight, by reason the price of gold was so encreased, took the contrary method from Henry V. and restoring it to its old weight, raised the value of it to ten shillings; by which means, though it continued in the same form both as to the rose and legend, it lost its name and was called a ryal, by which name it is met with always afterwards. For by indenture the first of his reign, a pound of gold of the old standard was coined into forty-five ryals, go-

ing for ten shillings, or a proportionable number of half and quarter ryals, at five shillings, and two shillings and sixpence a-piece.

These ryals (as we have it in Speed) gives him crowned with a crown imperial, seated on the throne with a scepter and globe, inscribed, *HENRICUS. DEI. GRA. REX. ANGL. 2. FRAN. DNS. HIB.* Reverse, the arms of France and England quarterly; *JESUS. AVTEM. TRANSSENS, &c.* and instead of nobles and half-nobles were coined by the same indenture, angels, or half-angels, sixty-seven one-half to the pound, going for six shillings

shillings and eight pence; or a proportionable number of angelets, going for three shillings and fourpence: and consequently the pound troy of gold was coined into twenty-two pound ten shillings, by tale. The angels were impressed with Michael and the dragon. HENRIC. DI. GRA. REX. ANGL. Z. FRA. Reverse, a shield with the arms of France and England quartered in a ship, having a cross for a mast, on one side the letter H, on the other a rose. PER. CRUCE. TVA. SALVA. NOS. XRE. RED. (*Christe Redemptor.*) The Salut was a French coin like his father's, and very much resembled the silver groat, which he likewise coined in that kingdom, saving that the groats wanted the angel and virgin over the shield, and instead of CHRISTVS. VINCIT. had SIT. NOMEN. DOMINI. BENEDICTVM.

The silver money, by the indenture before-mentioned, was of the old sterling, 112 groats one half to the pound, making in tale thirty-seven shillings and sixpence, or a proportionable number of half-groats, sterlings, halfpence, or farthings. These are distinguished from all his predecessors by the crown, he being the first of our monarchs that bore the arched crown with globe and cross upon it. These were mostly coined at London; but there were other mints at York, Bristol, and Dunwick; one I have of Dublin mint, another of Canterbury, and a third of York with the keys. The halfpenny has likewise the king's head very fair; H. D. C. ROSA. SIE. SPA. By indenture, the fourth of his reign, the value of gold was brought down again to sixteen pounds thirteen shillings and fourpence, and the silver to thirty shillings; but by another indenture, the forty-ninth year, it was raised again to the former value. In his thirty-seventh year brass money was first coined by this prince in Ireland; but there is no perfect account from any author that has ever seen any of it.

Edward IV. This king's monies  
Vol. IX.

are distinguished from those of Edward III. by the form of the letters; particularly n, not n or h, as in the former Edward's; and by the weight, his groats being above twenty grains lighter; also the title of Ireland is wanting on his coins. It has also been observed, that the outer circle on the groats is wanting, leaving the letters extended to the very edge, and generally worn part away; in other respects like his predecessor's, and of several mints, as London, York, Canterbury, Bristol: and some of them, besides the name of the place of mintage, on the reverse, have the initial letters E. C. B. on the king's breast. Of these groats 112 one half were made out of the pound of silver, according to the old standard, so that a groat weighed about sixpence of our present money; which is hardly half what it did in the days of Edward III. This may perhaps convince us that Edward IV's groats are no such rarities; and it is strange if they should, since we are sure this king coined a great deal of money marked with a star, cross croslet, escallop, anulet, anchor, &c.

The Irish groats have the king's head within a rose, nothing of the old triangle appearing, and generally make no mention at all of England, with the place of coinage reverse, as Dublin, Drogheda, Waterford; the power of coining money being taken away from all other places, whereas but eight years before there had been mints erected at Limerick, Galloway, Trim, and Carlingford. These fall short of the English groats near ten grains; the first difference betwixt the standards of the English and Irish money beginning in this reign: so that from thenceforward the groats of former kings were to be current at sixpence, and the monies coined afterwards in Ireland were always less than the English, sometimes a third, sometimes a fourth; so that the Irish shilling was ninepence English. Of this Irish money I have one CIVITAS. DVB-

Y y

LINE,

LINIE. with a large star, that fills the whole area, on the reverse, which, says Mr. Thoresby, is a great curiosity. Another in Speed, which he mistook for an English coin, on one side the arms of France and England quartered, inscribed, REX. ANGLIE. ET. FRANCIE. Reverse, three crowns, denoting the three kingdoms, DOMINVS. HIBERNIE.

In the eighteenth year of his reign there were coined threepences, twopences, and pennies: these were the first threepences that were coined, one of which, described by Mr. Thoresby, weighs twenty grains and a half. By indenture the fourth year, a pound of gold of the old standard, was to make by tale 20*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* And by another indenture the following year, a pound of gold was to make forty-five nobles, going for ten shillings; or a proportionable number of half and quarter, or sixty-seven angels and a half for six shillings and eightpence apiece; that is, into twenty-two pound ten shillings by tale, and the like indentures of the eighth, eleventh, sixteenth, and twenty-second years.

The ryal is like that of Henry Vth's rose-noble, only here is added a flag at the stern of the ship, wherein is the letter E. EDWARD. DI. GRA. REX. ANGL. Z. FRANC. DNS. IB. Reverse, IHS. AVT. TRANSIENS. PER. MEDIUM. ILLORV. IBAT. Instead of a cross is a rose in the center, with rays like a sun, extending to the lions and fleur-de-lis interchangeably, and is well described by Mr. Evelyn, only mistaken by him, as by Mr. Selden, for King Edward III. But that this is Edward IV. is evident by the arms; the fleurs-de-lis only three. The angel is exactly like that of Henry VI.

Edward V. This unhappy prince survived his father too few weeks to be so much as reckoned amongst our English kings. In the Cottonian manuscript, *Liure de Monnoyes*, there is indeed both groats and pennies of Edward V. but by the very description it is plain the author was mistaken.

Richard III. The shortness of this king's reign makes his coins very rare; but that there was money coined appears by indenture, whereby he contracts for money, both gold and silver, as the first of Henry VI. and fifth of Edward IV. One of these groats, in the possession of Dr. Nicholson, as described in his Historical Library, is inscribed with characters of the like shape of Henry VI. and Edward IV. weighing about two penny weights three grains, which was the exact standard of Richard III's groats: others in the possession of the late Bishop of York and Mr. Thoresby, in all which the face side wants the outer circle, the letters of the inscription which reach to the extremity of the coins; being generally imperfect, so that there was reason for the provision made by act of parliament in the next reign, that the new money should have a circle about the outermost parts. That coin which Speed gives of Richard II. is thought rather to belong to this king by the word *AGLIE* instead of *ANGLIE*, in whose reign that way of writing was grown fashionable. I have two pieces of this king, inscribed, RICARDUS. REX. ANGLIE. Reverse, CIVITAS. EBORACI. Another, RICARDUS. REX. ANGL. Reverse, CIVITAS. LONDON. The short reign of this king makes his coins so very rare, that an ingenious author observes, that he had seen a series of ancient monies from Edward the Confessor to the present times; Richard III. excepted, which it had not been his hap to light upon. Speed was likewise at the same dilemma, so that he was forced to leave a blank for this king's money.

Henry VIIth's current coins of gold were his sovereign, half sovereign, ryal, half ryal, and quarter, angel, and half angel; and of silver, groats, half groats, pennies, half pence and farthings: these were all of the old standard and value, as in first of Henry VI. and fifth of Edward IV. Those old pennies that bore divers  
spurs

spurs on the mullet betwixt the bars of the cross, were to go only for half pennies. And to avoid clipping for the future, the king (by advice of his council) caused new groats and twopences to be coined with outer circles, and ordered that the whole scripture should be about every piece of gold.

He was the first that after Henry III. added the number to his name. He left off the rose that used to surround the king's head, and instead thereof gives his head with a side face, which had never been used before, but on the coins of Rufus, but was continued by all his successors, except on the bad money of Henry VIII. and best of Edward VI. and likewise crowned with the arched or imperial crown used ever since, says an author: but by a nicer observation, it will be found to consist only of one arch; nor did the imperial crown, as it does now, appear upon the money till Queen Elizabeth's time. HENRICVS. VII. D. GRA. REX. ANGL. Z. FRAN. on the smaller monies leaving out the title of France; and on the reverse, instead of the

inner circle with the place of coinage and the pellets, he placed the arms of France and England quartered, which he the first of our English monarchs used constantly, but retained the outer circle and motto ROSVI, &c. except on the small coins, whereon sometimes is the place of coinage. Of these are the pennies exhibiting the king in his robes upon the throne, with crown, scepter, and ball: reverse, the keys, which discover it to be of the archbishop's coinage; one I have with T. C. on each side the arms. These are the only pieces that have not the number, and are inscribed, HENRIC. DI. GRA. REX. ANG.

In his twentieth year there were some few shillings coined, and they (being only forty in a pound of silver) were fair and large pieces, a full third heavier than ours at this day. They are now choice rarities in the best furnished cabinets. He is likewise said to have coined small pieces called Dandy prats, but of what metal, value, or fashion, we are not informed.

[To be continued.]

# TO THE EDITORS OF THE LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE.

GENTLEMEN,

October 9, 1792.

I observe you have begun in your last Magazine for September, 1792, an ingenious instructing essay on English Money, and therein you have touched on the old dispute relative to the rise and etymology of the word sterling, and the difficulty of giving a proper explanation thereto: I presume your Magazine is open to any party who may wish to offer their humble opinion; and when a person, who has been in the line of assaying gold and silver, enters the list, no doubt, if it does not bring conviction to the reader, yet may not altogether be destitute of entertainment; therefore submit the following essay on the definition and elucidation of the word sterling; and which was allowed at Goldsmith's Hall to be the best explanation the members had met with.

## DEFINITION AND ELUCIDATION OF THE WORD STERLING.

**C**ONCERNING the etymology and derivation of the word sterling, (generally applied to denote silver of a certain standard) antiquarians and other eminent writers on silver coin are much perplexed. Camden and Stowe with

other authors, on assaying of gold and silver in general, who have mentioned this circumstance, draw a conclusion that the word sterling was derived from the inhabitants of the eastern part of Germany, famous for establishing a certain

Y y 2

standard

standard of silver mixed with alloy, proper for rendering it into coin or vessels fit for use; and which society were called from thence Easterlings; who came over into this country in the reign of Richard I. and not from the circumstance of a star being struck on the pennies; or from a town of that name in Scotland, as some have supposed. Much controversy has arisen on this point. I will suggest my ideas on this subject of surmise and disputation. It is allowed that words which were formerly held to convey a just conception of the term; have, by time, variations in circumstances, the change of language, and natural ambiguity, been so mutilated, and transformed, that the original etymology of the word is obviously much obscured.

To me it seems probable, that in the infant state of metals, when they were first malleated for general use and circulation, for the benefit of society, the appellation, sterling silver, implied pure silver; and the expression of a sterling penny and a silver penny were synonymous terms. The word sterling might have been introduced at first from the idea of the superior brightness and white lustre, that virgin, or native silver has over other metals, and the epithet borrowed, from the latin word *stella*, a star, or *stellans* *stelliger*, signifying shining, or studded with stars.

In early records of latin authors, we read the words *sterelensis sterlingus*, which was afterwards corrupted to *Esterlingus*, by the Normans, and stood for pure silver in the mafs. To support my argument, Stowe, in his survey of London, mentions two observations (page 82, first edition) "the smaller sums were paid in sterlings, which were pence, so called, for other coins they had none."

William the Conqueror's penny was of fine silver of the weight of the easterling. Again, "I find common easterling money men-

tioned and yet oftentimes the same. As is called *argent*, as afore, and not otherwise." Page 83 of Stowe, "thirty-two grains of wheat dry and round, shall be the weight of a sterling penny."

Camden quotes a book of St. Edmundsbury, wherein it is related that King Edward I. established "a certain standard for the coin prescribed by Gregory Rockley, mayor of London, Master of the Mint, as follows: a pound of money containeth twelve ounces troy weight. In a pound there ought to be eleven ounces, two easterlings, and one farling, and the other alloy, &c." This is the same standard of the silver coin, as is used in the present time; and is a proof that the word sterling in its primæval state, conveyed the idea of pure silver currency, or peculiar standard, as it does at present. To define and clear up this mysterious meaning of the word sterling, it now conveys the exact idea to a goldsmith's mind, that it originally indicated, for the word sterling is neither derived from a town of that name, or country, or inhabitant, but from the latin word *sterelensis*, signifying barren silver, not bearing any impression, nor wrought into plate or coin. As an incontestible proof that this is the true meaning and rise of the word sterling, see Lytton's Dictionary, under the word *sterilis* read *sterilis pecunia*, money not put to use; and when a goldsmith asks a refiner of gold and silver for a hundred ounces of sterling, he gives him a crude broken mass of dark looking silver, with neither shape or make appertaining thereto, but of an usual lawful standard for manufacturing it into plate.

FRANCIS SPILSBURY,  
Soho Square, Sept. 4th, 1792.

N. B. Sterling silver is worse than the standard silver by 2 dwts. the one being 11 oz. pure, standard 11 oz. 2d,



# THE PRESENT STATE OF THE REPRESENTATION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

[ Continued from Page 273. ]

## Hants County.

**A**LTHOUGH large, rich, and populous, is still completely under the controul of government.

*Portsmouth.* The corporation here alone vote, their number about 110, the admiralty's interest strongly prevails here, at present 'tis true, the opposition party prevails, but government we have no doubt will soon recover its influence.

*Southampton Town.* Is a county of itself, and its corporation highly respectable, who have great influence in the election, and the power of making honorary burgesses; it was represented 23 Edw. 1.

*Stockbridge.* This borough has been very friendly to the gentlemen of the long robe, few elections passing without an appeal to parliament on the score of bribery and corruption; the voters are inhabitants who pay to church and poor, in number about 57.

*Christchurch.* Has had no decision on the right of election, but is a scot and lot borough. but the corporation assume the right of election, the number of voters is only 24. and the patrons are Lord Malmesbury, and George Rose, Esq. of notorious treasury fame.

*Lyminster.* The right of election is exclusively in the corporation, who are in number about 80, and wholly under the influence of Sir Harry Burrard.

*Yarmouth.* Isle of Wight, contains about fifty houses and cottages, the right of election is in the capital and free burgesses. Mr. Holmes and Mr. Jervoise, who have each friends, agree to send one member each.

*Newtown.* is a place so wretchedly decayed, as to have not more than ten cottages, but the right of voting is in 39 burghage tenures, of which Sir Richard Wortley, and Sir Fitzwilliam Barrington, have a major-

ity, and quietly settle the representation.

*Newport.* This town is respectable, consisting of about 500 houses, but the corporation, consisting of twenty-four, elect the members, the Rev. Mr. Holmes is the patron.

*Winchester City.* Containing about one thousand houses, but its right of representation is confined to the corporation, whose number does not exceed 60; the influence lies with Mr. Penton, and Mr. Leigh.

*Andover.* A corporation here assumes the privilege of electing the members, their number only 24, although the town contains 600 houses; the Earl of Portsmouth, and Mr. Iremonger of Wharewell, are the patrons.

*Whitchurch,* is the joint property of Lords Middleton and Sydney, who, although the voters are about 70, sway the elections.

*Petersfield.* The right is here in the possession of 154 freeholds and ancient dwellings, which are all the property of Mr. Jolliffe.

*Hereford County.* The Earl of Oxford's interest prevails here, but Sir George Cornwall and Mr. Walwyn opposing him in 1775, he has been obliged to let the former gentleman come in since on the independent interest.

*Hereford City.* A strong struggle has taken place here between the independent interest and the Duke of Norfolk, who, notwithstanding the freemen are above 1200, can carry one member.

*Leominster.* The right of election is in the bailiffs, capital burgesses, and inhabitants, paying scot and lot, whose number is about 500. The aristocratic influence here prevailing, is that of the Duke of Norfolk.

*Woolby,* a borough completely possessed and ruled by the Marquis of Bath; the nominal voters are 45.

*Hart-*

*Hartfordshire.* Few counties have maintained their independence with more spirit than this.

*Hartford Town.* Here the inhabitants, householders, and freemen, resident or not resident, (the latter not exceeding three) have votes; their number is about 500. and Baron Dimdale possesses the chief influence.

*St. Albans.* The Earl of Salisbury and Earl Spencer are the patrons of this borough, and have contended long for the superiority; the freemen, who are between 3 and 400, vote.

*Huntingdonshire.* This small county is greatly under aristocratic influence. The Duke of Manchester and Lord Hardwick, when united, constantly return the two members.

*Huntingdon Town,* has sent to parliament from the earliest records, and was made a borough by King John. The number of voters only 200, over whom the late Earl of Sandwich, by means of douceurs distributed while first lord of the admiralty, bore complete sway: whether it will be transferred to his son, remains to be seen.

*Kent County,* has hitherto supported its independence. The Duke of Dorset has the first aristocratic interest, and ministry have exerted themselves greatly to procure Sir Edward Knatchbull to be returned at the last election. The law of gavel-kind here prevails, which, by distributing the freeholds among all the children, contributes much to support the independency of the county.

*Rocheſter City,* owing to its vicinity to the dock-yard at Chatham, is swayed by the admiralty board, and it has been usual to compliment that board with the nomination of one member; the number of voters is about 690.

*Canterbury City,* still maintains its independency from aristocratic influence; the voters amount to 1000.

*Maidſtone.* This borough was once under the influence of the Earl of

Ailesford; but the freemen, who are about 600, have shaken off that dominion, and the ministerial and opposition parties, each under a leader, warmly contest the elections.

*Queenborough,* a complete government borough, patronized by the board of ordnance; the voters are the mayor, jurats, bailiffs, and burgesses, in number about 150. The places held by freemen of the borough, many of which are quite useless, cost the nation near 3000l. per annum.

*Lancaster County.* The Earl of Derby's influence secures one of his friends to be chosen; the other seat is, in the language of elections, open.

*Lancaster.* Lord Londale, who never likes a good thing should slip through his fingers, has made three attempts to carry this borough, but without effect; the voters are about 1800, but most scandalous practices are used to make them previous to an election.

*Preston,* is a large and populous town, and Lord Derby, who resides here, can procure one of his friends to be elected. All the inhabitants have votes; who are in number about 600.

*Liverpool,* keeps itself free from aristocratic or ministerial influence; its voters are the freemen, to the amount of 2300.

*Clithero.* The voters are burgage tenure holders, in number 42, the property of Thomas Lister and Ashton Curzon, Esqrs. who, although of different parties, agree very cordially in their election concerns, and each nominates one member.

*Wigan.* The election is understood to be in the free burgesses, who are 200. Sir Henry Bridgman, and the Rev. Mr. Cotes, are the patrons.

*Newton,* has about 36 voters, burgesses, under the controul of J. Peter Legh, Esq. lord of the manor.

*Leicester County.* The Duke of Rutland's interest brings in one member, the other seat is free.

*Leicester Town,* from its riches and populousness, keeps itself independent;

dent; the freemen, who are numerous, vote.

*Lincoln County*, a large, free, and independent county.

*Lincoln City*, has a great number of voters, 1100, who are freemen, and keeps itself independent.

*Grantham*, although a town of respectability and repute, is completely under the influence of the Duke of Rutland and Lord Brownlow; the freemen are about 400.

*Stamford*, a borough under the patronage of the Earl of Exeter, although the inhabitants vote in the elections, and their number exceed 500.

*Great Grimsby*, entirely under the controul of Charles Anderson Pelham, Esq. the freemen who vote are about 75.

*Boston*. The resident freemen are the electors, who are about 200; one member is carried by the Duke of Ancaster.

*Middlesex*. The elections of this county have made much noise, and the freeholders have manifested a true spirit of independency. The number of voters is large, although the county is small. Their spirit in returning Mr. Wilkes three several times, in resisting the influence of government, and in pursuing the recovery of their lost rights, has done them great honour; and we heartily wish their once favoured member had followed the independent example of his constituents.

*London*. This city, although the first in the kingdom, sends no more members than the two paltry towns of East and West Loos, and even its freemen do not vote; unless admitted on the livery; by which regulation all the poorer part of the freemen are deprived of their suffrages; the number of voters are about 7000.

*Westminster City*. For a long series of years the court party have carried the elections here, aided by the influence of the Dukes of Newcastle and Northumberland; but the shining talents and powerful interest of

Mr. Fox, has secured him his election. We are sorry to say, that the scenes of bribery, corruption, and dissipation here, during an election, are scandalous in the extreme. The numbers of voters who have polled at a Westminster election, have exceeded 13,000.

*Monmouth County*. A peer and a commoner bear sway in this county, the Duke of Beaufort and Mr. Morgan, of Tredegar.

*Monmouth Town*. This borough, in conjunction with Usk and Newport, sends one member to parliament. The Duke of Beaufort is considered as patron and leader, and always secures the election of his friend. The voters are about 800 burgesses.

*Norfolk County*. In point of opulence, one of the first in the kingdom, and has resisted the aristocratic influence of the nobility who reside there.

*Norwich*, is rich, populous, and independent, and has near 3000 voters.

*Yarmouth*. Is a rich town, and free from noble influence, its voters are free burgesses to the number of near 800.

*Thetford*. The right of election being in the corporation of 31 aldermen, and a common council, exclusive of the inhabitants, these worthies obey the hints of the Duke of Grafton.

*Castle Rising*. The town is the joint property of the Earl of Oxford and Lady Suffolk, who have reduced the number of voters to 2, free burgesses no doubt.

*Lynn*. This borough has been constantly attached to the Walpole family; it is a borough by prescription, and has about 300 voters.

*Northumberland County*. This county is said to hold the balance between aristocracy and independence nearly equal, the Duke of Northumberland usually brings in one member, and the independent interest the other. In 1774 his grace modestly attempted to carry both seats, but was defeated.

*Newcastle upon Tyne*. The freedom of

### 360 *Present State of the Representation of England and Scotland.*

of this town extends to all the sons of freemen, whose number is too extensive to submit to controul, their number being 2500.

*Morpeth.* This borough is under the immediate controul of the Earl of Carlisle; several attempts have been made to shake off this yoke without success, the rights of election is in the free burgesses, whose number is about 200.

*Berwick upon Tweed.* The right of election is in the freemen, resident and not resident, to the amount of about 600. The town is a county by itself, and has returned members ever since the reign of Henry VIII.

A singular election trick was played off here in 1768. Sir J. Delaval and R. P. Taylor had obtained the promises of most of the resident freemen, their opponents had secured the non resident freemen in London, and agreed for their passage in some vessels. Hearing of this, Sir J. and Mr. T. by proper means secured the interest of the masters of these ships, who took good care to land their cargoes in Norway, by which Sir John and his colleague quietly came in and took their seats without further expence.

*Northamptonshire.* This county has afforded a fine field for violent contest among the aristocratic heroes; the late Earls of Halifax and Spencer, and the present Earl of Northampton entered into one of the most expensive contests ever known; the consequence of which was, that the estates of the Earl of Halifax were obliged to be sold for the benefit of his creditors; the earl of Northampton has been since obliged to live an exile from his country; and the Spencer estate, although large, has not yet recovered the shock it then received. One good circumstance has however occurred, the independent part of the county have been enabled since to exercise their right of election.

*Northampton Town.* Here the right of election is where it should be, in the inhabitants, householders not

receiving alms, however, the corporation, who are in the interest of the Earl of Northampton, find means to bring in one member of his lordship's recommendation.

*Peterborough City.* This city is independent in its elections; the inhabitants paying scot and lot vote; as this city has no mayor or recorder, the steward to the dean and chapter is returning officer; the number of voters about 500.

*Brackley.* Although supposed to be the third borough erected in England, did not send members to parliament till the reign of Edward VI. The right of election is in the persons inhabiting houses built on ancient foundations. Their number about 39; wholly under the influence of the Duke of Bridgwater.

*Higham Ferrers.* A small town, where, although the householders vote, their number but little exceeds 80, and compleatly swayed by the Earl of Fitzwilliam. This borough returns only one member.

*Nottingham County.* The Dukes of Portland and Newcastle, Lord Middleton and the Pierpoint family, by uniting, can dictate to the county who shall be their members. Any attempt to oppose this aristocratic combination, would we fear be vain: the virtuous citizen, Major Cartwright, once made the attempt, and notwithstanding his good character, and the service he has rendered his country, failed.

*Nottingham.* A populous town, and the seat of great commerce and manufactures; its voters, who are 1700, being both freemen and freeholders, has it in its power to be independent, but a coalition among the leading men of the two contending parties, who agree to put in one member of each side, deprives the town of its just and free right of voting.

*East Retford.* This borough, where the right of voting is pretty much extended, affords a coalition of another kind, the aldermen can, by a defect in the charter, multiply free-  
men

men as they please, and consequently defeat the freemen of their right; to avoid which, a mutual agreement has taken place, by which the aldermen and freemen are to nominate one member each. The aldermen being in the interest of the Duke of Newcastle, receive his Grace's instructions, and the freemen have not found any champion who will stand forth and support their cause.

*Newark Town.* A contest has existed here for above a century, between those who are taxed and those who are not. The number of voters are large, near 700; yet the Dukes of Rutland and Newcastle have acquired such influence, as to secure the return of their friends.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## ACCOUNT OF LULWORTH CASTLE.

WITH A VIEW OF THE SAME.

**L**ULWORTH CASTLE, in Dorsetshire, is situated in the vicinity of Dorchester. It is a beautiful structure, built in the reign of King James I. from a design of that

celebrated artist, Inigo Jones. It is, or was lately, the property of Mr. Willis. His majesty, in his first excursion to Weymouth, paid a visit to it, and was hospitably received.

## AN ACCOUNT OF THE FIVE INDIAN NATIONS OF CANADA.

BY CADWALLADER COLDEN, ESQ.

**T**HE Five Nations (as their name denotes) consist of so many tribes or nations, joined together by a league or confederacy, like the united provinces, and without any superiority of the one over the other. This union has continued so long, that the christians know nothing of the original of it: the people in it are known by the English under the names of Mohawks, Oneydoes, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Sennekas.

Each of these nations is again divided into three tribes or families, who distinguish themselves by three different arms or ensigns, the tortoise, the bear, and the wolf; and the sachems, or old men of these families, put this ensign, or mark of their family, to every public paper, when they sign it.

Each of these nations is an absolute republic by itself, and every castle in each nation makes an independent republic, and is governed in all public affairs by its own sachems or old men. The authority of these rulers is gained by, and con-

sists wholly in the opinion the rest of the nation have of their wisdom and integrity. They never execute their resolutions by force upon any of their people. Honour and esteem are their principal rewards; as shame, and being despised, their punishments. They have certain customs, which they observe in their public transactions with other nations, and in their private affairs among themselves; which it is scandalous for any one among them not to observe, and these always draw after them either public or private resentment, whenever they are broke.

Their leaders and captains, in like manner, obtain their authority, by the general opinion of their courage and conduct, and lose it by a failure in those virtues.

Their great men, both sachems and captains, are generally poorer than the common people; for they affect to give away and distribute all the presents or plunder they get in their treaties or in war, so as to leave nothing to themselves. There

is not a man in the ministry of the Five Nations, who has gained his office, otherwise than by merit; there is not the least salary, or any sort of profit, annexed to any office, to tempt the covetous or fordid; but, on the contrary, every unworthy action is unavoidably attended with the forfeiture of their commission; for their authority is only the esteem of the people, and ceases the moment that esteem is lost. Here we see the natural origin of all power and authority among a free people, and whatever artificial power or sovereignty any man may have acquired, by the laws and constitution of a country, his real power will be ever much greater or less, in proportion to the esteem the people have of him.

The Five Nations think themselves by nature superior to the rest of mankind, and call themselves *Ongue-honwee*; that is, men surpassing all others. This opinion, which they take care to cultivate into their children, gives them that courage, which has been so terrible to all the nations of North America; and they have taken such care to impreß the same opinion of their people on all their neighbours, that they, on all occasions, yield the most submissive obedience to them. I have been told by old men in New-England, who remembered the time when the Mohawks made war on their Indians, that as soon as a single Mohawk was discovered in the country, their Indians raised a cry from hill to hill, a Mohawk! a Mohawk! upon which they all fled like sheep before wolves, without attempting to make the least resistance, whatever odds were on their side. The poor New-England Indians im-

mediately ran to the Christian houses, and the Mohawks often pursued them so closely, that they entered along with them, and knocked their brains out in the presence of the people of the house; but if the family had time to shut the door, they never attempted to force it, and on no occasion did any injury to the Christians. All the nations round them have, for many years, entirely submitted to them, and pay a yearly tribute to them in Wampum;\* they dare neither make war nor peace, without the consent of the Mohawks. Two old men commonly go about every year or two, to receive this tribute; and I have often had opportunity to observe what anxiety the poor Indians were under, while these two old men remained in that part of the country where I was. An old Mohawk sachem, in a poor blanket and dirty shirt, may be seen issuing his orders with as arbitrary an authority, as a Roman dictator. It is not for the sake of tribute however, that they make war, but from the notions of glory, which they have ever most strongly imprinted on their minds; and the farther they go to seek an enemy, the greater glory they think they gain; there cannot, I think, be a greater or stronger instance than this, how much the sentiments impressed upon a people's mind, conduce to their grandeur, or one that more verifies a saying often to be met with, though but too little minded, that it is in the power of the rulers of a people to make them either great or little; for by inculcating only the notions of honour and virtue, or those of luxury and riches, the people, in a little time, will become such as their

\* Wampum is the current money among the Indians: it is of two sorts, white and purple: the white is worked out of the inside of the great conques into the form of a bead, and perforated, to string on leather; the purple is worked out of the inside of the muscle shell; they are wove as broad as one's hand, and about two feet long; these they call belts, and give and receive at their treaties as the seals of friendship, for lesser matters a single string is given. Every bead is of a known value, and a belt of a less number, is made to equal one of a greater, by so many as is wanting fastened to the belt by a string.



their rulers desire. The Five Nations, in their love of liberty, and of their country, in their bravery in battle, and their constancy in enduring torments, equal the fortitude of the most renowned Romans. I shall finish their general character by what an enemy, a Frenchman, says of them, Monsieur De la Poterie, in his History of North America.

"When we speak (says he) of the Five Nations in France; they are thought, by a common mistake, to be mere barbarians, always thirsting after human blood; but their true character is very different. They are indeed the fiercest and most formidable people in North America, and, at the same time, are as politic and judicious, as well can be conceived; and this appears from the management of all the affairs which they transact, not only with the French and English, but likewise with almost all the India Nations of this vast continent."

Their matters of consequence, which concern all the nations, are transacted in a general meeting of the sachems of each nation. These conventions are commonly held at Onnondaga, which is nearly the center of their country; but they have fixed on Albany for the place of treating with the British Colonies.

They strictly follow one maxim, formerly used by the Romans to increase their strength, that is, they encourage the people of other nations to incorporate with them; and when they have subdued any people, after they have satiated their revenge by some cruel examples, they adopt the rest of their captives; who, if they behave well, become equally esteemed with their own people; so that some of their captives have afterwards become their greatest sachems and captains. The Tuskaroras, after the war they had with the people of Carolina, fled to the Five Nations, and are now incorporated with them; so

that they now properly indeed consist of six nations, though they still retain the old name of the Five Nations among the English. The Cowetas also, or Creek-Indians, are in the same friendship with them.

The Tuskaroras, since they came under the province of New York, behave themselves well, and remain peaceable and quiet; and by this may be seen the advantage of using the Indians well, and I believe, if they were still better used, (as there is room enough to do it) they would be proportionably more useful to us.

The cruelty the Indians use in their wars, towards those that do not or cannot resist, such as women and children, and to their prisoners, after they have them in their power, is deservedly indeed held in abhorrence: but whoever reads the history of the most famed heroes, will find them, I'm afraid, not much better in this respect. Does Achilles's behaviour to Hector's dead body, in Homer, appear less savage? this cruelty is also not peculiar to the Five Nations, but equally practised by all other Indians. It is wonderful, how custom and education are able to soften the most horrid actions, even among a polite and learned people; witness the Carthaginians and Phenicians burning their own children alive in sacrifice; and several passages in the Jewish history; and witness, in latter times, the Christians burning one another alive, for God's sake.

When any of the young men of these nations have a mind to signalize themselves, and to gain a reputation among their countrymen, by some notable enterprise against their enemy, they at first communicate their design to two or three of their most intimate friends; and if they come into it, an invitation is made, in their names, to all the young men of the castle, to feast on dog's flesh; but whether this be, because dog's flesh is most agreeable to Indian palates, or whether it be

as an emblem of fidelity, for which the dog is distinguished by all nations, that it is always used on this occasion, I have not sufficient information to determine. When the company is met, the promoters of the enterprize set forth the undertaking in the best colours they can; they boast of what they intend to do, and incite others to join, from the glory there is to be obtained; and all who eat of the dog's flesh, thereby inflist themselves.

The night before they set out, they make a grand feast, to this all the noted warriors of the nation are invited; and here they have their war-dance, to the beat of a kind of kettle-drum. The warriors are seated in two rows in the house, and each rises up in his turn, and sings the great acts he has himself performed, and the deeds of his ancestors; and this is always accompanied with a kind of dance, or rather action, representing the manner in which they were performed; and from time to time, all present join in a chorus, applauding every notable act. They exaggerate the injuries they have at any time received from their enemies, and extol the glory which any of their ancestors have gained by their bravery and courage; so that they work up their spirits to a high degree of warlike enthusiasm. I have sometimes persuaded some of their young Indians to act these dances, for our diversion, and to shew us the manner of them; and even, on these occasions, they have worked themselves up to such a pitch, that they have made all present uneasy. Is it not probable, that such designs as these have given the first rise to tragedy?

They come to these dances with their faces painted in a frightful manner, as they always are when they go to war, to make themselves terrible to their enemies; and in this manner the night is spent. Next day they march out with

much formality, dressed in their finest apparel, and in their march, observe a profound silence. An officer of the regular troops told me, that while he was commandant of Fort-Hunter, the Mohawks, on one of these occasions, told him, that they expected the usual military honours as they passed the garrison. Accordingly he drew out his garrison, the men presented their pieces as the Indians passed, and the drum beat a march; and with less respect, the officer said, they would have been dissatisfied. The Indians passed in a single row, one after another, with great gravity and profound silence; and every one of them, as he passed the officer, took his gun from his shoulder, and fired into the ground near the officer's foot: they marched in this manner three or four miles from their castle. The women, on these occasions, always follow them with their old clothes, and they send back by them their finery in which they marched from the castle. But before they go from this place, where they exchanged their clothes, they always peel a large piece of the bark of some great tree; they commonly chuse an oak, as most lasting; upon the smooth side of this wood they, with their red paint, draw one or more canoes going from home, with the number of men in them paddling, which go upon the expedition; and some animal, as a deer or fox, an emblem of the nation against which the expedition is designed, is painted at the head of the canoes; for they always travel in canoes along the rivers, which lead to the country against which the expedition is designed, as far as they can.

After the expedition is over, they stop at the same place in their return, and send to their castle, to inform their friends of their arrival; that they may be prepared to give them a solemn reception, suited to the success they have had. In the mean time, they represent on the same, or some tree near it, the event

event of the enterprize, and now the canoes are painted with their heads turned towards the castle; the number of the enemy killed, is represented by scalps painted black, and the number of prisoners by as many withs. (in the painting not unlike pothooks) with which they usually pinion their captives. These trees are the annals, or rather trophies of the Five Nations: I have seen many of them; and by them, and their war songs, they preserve the history of their great achievements. The solemn reception of these warriors, and the acclamations of applause, which they receive at their return, cannot but have in the hearers the same effect, in raising an emulation for glory, that a triumph had on the old Romans.

After their prisoners are secured, they never offer them the least mal-treatment, but, on the contrary, will rather starve themselves, than suffer them to want; and I have been always assured, that there is not one instance of their offering the least violence to the chastity of any woman that was their captive. But notwithstanding this, the poor prisoners afterwards undergo severe punishments before they receive the last doom of life or death. The warriors think it for their glory, to lead them through all the villages of the nations subject to them, which lie near the road; and these, to shew their affection to the Five Nations, and their abhorrence of their enemies, draw up in two lines, through which the poor prisoners, stark naked, must run the gauntlet; and on this occasion, it is always observed, the women are much more cruel than the men. The prisoners meet with the same sad reception when they reach their journey's end; and after this, they are presented to those that have lost any relation in that or any former enterprize. If the captives be accepted, there is an end to their sorrow from that moment; they are dressed as fine as they can make

them; they are absolutely free (except to return to their own country) and enjoy all the privileges the person had, in whose place they are accepted; but if otherwise, they die in torments, to satiate the revenge of those that refuse them.

If a young man or boy be received in place of a husband that was killed, all the children of the deceased call that boy father; so that one may sometimes hear a man of thirty say, that such a boy of fifteen or twenty is his father.

Their castles are generally a square surrounded with palisadoes, without any bastions or outworks; for, since the general peace, their villages lie all open.

Their only instruments of war are musquets, hatchets, and long sharp-pointed knives; these they always carry about with them; their hatchet, in war-time, is stuck in their girdle behind them; and besides what use they make of this weapon in their hand, they have a dexterous way of throwing it, which I have seen them often practise in their exercise, by throwing it into a tree at a distance: they have, in this, the art of directing and regulating the motion, so that though the hatchet turns round as it flies, the edge always sticks in the tree, and near the place at which they aim it. The use of bows and arrows are now entirely laid aside, except among boys, who are still very dexterous in killing fowls and other animals with them.

They use neither drum nor trumpet, nor any kind of musical instrument in their wars; their throats serve them on all occasions, where such are necessary. Many of them have a surprising faculty of raising their voice, not only in inarticulate sounds, but likewise to make their words understood at a great distance; and we find the same practised by Homer's Heroes,

Thrice to its pitch his lofty voice he rears—  
O friend! Ulysses' shouts invade my ears.

[To be concluded in our next.]

AU.

AUTHENTIC PAPERS FROM GOVERNOR PHILLIP,  
RESPECTING THE STATE OF THE COLONIES OF BOTANY BAY AND  
NORFOLK ISLAND.

Number I.

*Sidney Cove, Feb. 12, 1790.*

WHEN the Supply left Norfolk Island, the people were all very healthy, and they had vegetables in the greatest abundance. They get fish, when the weather permits the boat to go without the reef, and, at times, in such quantities, that fish is served to the people in lieu of salt provisions. They make their lines from the flax plant; but unfortunately, we have not any person who understands how to dress it.

Half a pod of cotton being found on the island (supposed to be brought there by a bird) and a cocoa nut which was perfectly found, and appeared to have been but a short time in the water, being thrown upon the beach, have given some reason to suppose that both these articles will be found in some island at no great distance.

Lord Howe Island has been examined; but no fresh water, or good anchorage, being found, it can be of no other advantage to this settlement, than occasionally supplying a few turtle.

I had the honour of informing your lordship, that a settlement was intended to be made at a place I named Rose Hill. At the head of this harbour there is a creek, which, at half flood, has water for large boats to go three miles up; and one mile higher the water is fresh, and the soil is good. A very industrious man whom I brought from England, is employed there at present, and has under his direction one hundred convicts, who are employed in clearing and cultivating the ground. A barn, granary, and other necessary buildings, are erected; and twenty-seven acres in corn promise a good crop. The soil is good; and the country for twenty miles to the westward, as far as I have examined it,

lies well for cultivation: but then the labour of clearing the ground is very great; and I have seen none that can be cultivated without cutting down the timber, except some few particular spots, which, from their situation (lying at a distance from either of the harbours) can be of no advantage to us at present; and, I presume, the meadows mentioned in Captain Cook's voyage, were seen from the high grounds about Botany Bay, and from whence they appear well to the eye, but, when examined, are found to be marshes, the draining of which would be waste of time, and not to be attempted by the first settlers. The captain's guard, which until lately did duty at Rose Hill, is now reduced to a lieutenant and twelve privates, and intended merely as a guard to the store which contains the provisions, and which is the redoubt; for I am now sensible there is nothing to be apprehended from the natives; and the little attendance which had been desired of the officers, more than what was immediately garrison duty, when at Rose Hill, is now no longer required.

At Sydney Cove all the officers are in good huts, and the men in barracks; and, although many unforeseen difficulties have been met with, I believe there is not an individual, from the governor to the private soldier, whose situation is not more eligible at this time, than he had any reason to expect it could be in the course of the three years station; and it is the same with the convicts; and those who have been any ways industrious, have vegetables in plenty. The buildings now carrying on are of brick and stone. The house intended for myself was to consist of only three rooms; but, having a good foundation, has been enlarged, contains six rooms, and is so well built, that I presume it will

will stand for a great number of years.

The stores have been lately overrun with rats; and they are equally numerous in the gardens, where they do considerable damage; and as the loss in the stores could only be known by removing all the provisions, that was ordered to be done; and many casks of flour and rice were found to be damaged, or totally destroyed. The loss, in these two articles, by the rats, since landing, has been more than twelve thousand weight.

Vegetables and provisions having been frequently stolen in the night, from convicts and others, twelve convicts were chosen as a night watch, and they have actually answered the end proposed, no robbery having been committed for several months; and the convicts, in general, have behaved better than I ever expected. Only two convicts have suffered death in the last year. Four were executed the first year.

As near two years have now passed, since we first landed in this country, some judgment may be formed of the climate; and I believe a finer, or more healthy climate, is not to be found in any part of the world. Of one thousand and thirty people, who were landed, many of whom were worn out by old age, the scurvy, and various disorders, only seventy-two have died in twenty-one months: and by the surgeon's return it appears, that twenty-six of those died from disorders of long standing; and which, it is more than probable, would have carried them off much sooner in England. Fifty-nine children have been born in the above time. In December the corn at Rose Hill was got in. The corn was exceedingly good; about two hundred bushels of wheat, and sixty of barley, with a small quantity of flax, Indian corn, and oats; all which is preserved for seed. Here I beg leave to observe to your lordship, that, if settlers are sent out, and the convicts divided among them,

this settlement will very shortly maintain itself; but without which, this country cannot be cultivated to any advantage. At present I have only one person (who has about one hundred convicts under his direction) who is employed in cultivating the ground for the public benefit, and he has returned the quantity of corn above-mentioned into the public store. The officers have not raised sufficient to support the little stock they have. Some ground I have had in cultivation, will return about forty bushels of wheat into store; so that the produce of the labour of the convicts employed in cultivation, has been very short of what might have been expected, and which I take the liberty of pointing out to your lordship in this place; to shew as fully as possible, the state of this colony, and the necessity of the convicts being employed by those who have an interest in their labour. The giving convicts to the officers has been hitherto necessary, but it is attended with many inconveniences, for which the advantages arising to the officers do not make amends: it will not therefore be continued after this detachment is relieved, unless particularly directed. The numbers employed in cultivation will of course be increased, as the necessary buildings are finished, but which will be a work of time, for there are numbers in this settlement who do nothing towards their own support, except those employed for the public.

In November the Supply sailed for Norfolk Island, with some convicts, and returned, after being absent six weeks. All the people in that island were well; and their crops, after all they had suffered from rats, birds, and a worm, which had done them considerable damage, so good, that they had grain sufficient for six months. (and bread for every one upon the island) reserving sufficient for their next year's crops.

Early in January, 1790. the Supply again sailed for Norfolk Island with more convicts; and in her passage

sage left a small party on Lord Howe Island, to hunt turtle; but in fifteen days only three were taken, so that no great advantages will at present accrue from thence. The island has fresh water, but no good anchoring ground.

Since the deaths mentioned in a former part of this letter, one woman has suffered for a robbery; five children have died, and twenty-eight children have been born; making in all, seventy-seven deaths, and eighty-seven births.

#### Number II.

*Sydney Cove, Feb. 13, 1790.*

In order to get a knowledge of the country round the settlement, frequent excursions have been made since the ship sailed in November, 1788; soon after which I went to Botany Bay, and the five days spent in that harbour confirmed me in the opinion I had first formed of it, that it afforded no eligible situation for fixing the settlement, and was a bad harbour, not affording good security for ships against the easterly winds, which frequently blow very hard in the winter; and which has been further proved by captain Hunter, and the first lieutenant of the *Sirius*, who went there to survey the Bay.

After having been several times with the boats to Broken Bay, in order to examine the different branches in that harbour, a river was found; but the want of provisions obliged us to return without being able to trace its source, which has since been done; and in the sixteen days we were then out, all those branches, which had any depth of water, were traced as far as the boats could proceed.

The breadth of this river, named the Hawkesbury, is from three hundred to eight hundred feet; and it appears, from the soundings we had, to be navigable, for the largest merchant ships, to the foot of Richmond Hill; but as the water, near the head of the river, sometimes rises, after very heavy rains, thirty

feet above its common level, it would not be safe for ships to go far up; but fifteen or twenty miles below Richmond Hill they would lie in fresh water, and perfectly safe. I speak of Richmond Hill as being the head of the river, it there growing very shallow, and dividing into two branches.

The high rocky country which forms Broken Bay, is lost as you proceed up the Hawkesbury; and the banks of the river are there covered with timber; the soil a rich light mould; and, judging from the little we saw of the country, I should suppose it good land to a very considerable extent. The other branches of fresh water are shoal, but probably run many miles further into the country than we could trace them in our boats. On these rivers we saw great numbers of wild ducks; and some black swans: and on the banks of the Hawkesbury several decoys were set by the natives, to catch quails.

Richmond Hill (near the foot of which a fall of water prevented our proceeding further with the boats) is the southern extremity of a range of hills, which running to the northward, most probably join the mountains that lie nearly parallel to the coast, from fifty to sixty miles inland. The soil of Richmond Hill is good, and it lies well for cultivation. Our prospect from the hill was very extensive to the southward and eastward; the country appearing, from the height on which we were, a level covered with timber. There is a flat of six or seven miles between Richmond Hill and a break in the mountains, which separates Lansdown and Carmarthen Hills; and in this flat I suppose the Hawkesbury continues its course, but which could not be seen for the timber, that, with very few exceptions, covers the country, wherever the soil is good.

The great advantage of so noble a river, when a settlement can be made on its banks, will be obvious to your lordship.

The



The settlement made at Port Jackson, and near the head of the harbour (Rose Hill) very fully answers my expectations; the soil is exceedingly good. lies well for cultivation, and is well watered. Six miles to the southward there is a small fresh river; and twenty to the southward there is a more considerable river, the source of which I suppose to be at the foot of the mountain. The banks of this river, which most probably empties itself into the Hawkesbury, are high, the soil a good light mould, and covered with trees. The wood of some of the trees is very light: they are about the size of large walnut-trees, which they resemble: they shed their leaves, and bear a small fruit, which is said to be very wholesome. This river likewise rises thirty feet above its common level. It is, as far as I have seen it, from three hundred to four hundred feet in breadth. I named it the Nepean; and its source will be traced in the course of the winter. From its banks I hope to reach the mountains, which has been attempted by a party, who crossed the river; but, after the first day's journey, they met with such a constant succession of deep ravines, the sides of which were frequently inaccessible, that they returned, not having been able to proceed above fifteen miles in five days. When they turned back, they supposed themselves to be twelve miles from the foot of the mountains.

As the land, for several miles to the southward, and twenty miles to the eastward, of Rose Hill (that is to the banks of the Nepean) is as fine land for tillage as most in England (some few spots excepted, the soil of which is poor, and bears a very small proportion to the good land), I propose that tract of land for those settlers who may be sent out; and though they will be placed at some distance from each other, for the convenience of water, from one to three or four miles, they will have nothing to apprehend from the

Vol. IX.

natives, who avoid those parts we most frequent, and always retire at the sight of two or three people who are armed.

As the labour of clearing the ground of timber will be great, I think each settler should not have less than twenty men on his own farm, which I suppose to be from five hundred to one thousand acres. It will be necessary to give that number of convicts to those settlers who come out, and to support them for two years from the public stores. In that time, if they are at all industrious, they will be in a situation to support themselves; and I do not think they would be able to do it in less time. At the expiration of the two years, they may return half the convicts they have been allowed, and want no further assistance from government.

It may be necessary to grant lands to officers and soldiers, who, becoming settlers, will of course be entitled to every indulgence: but few of the officers now here have reaped any good advantage from being allowed convicts; and it is attended with unavoidable inconveniences, from the convicts being left so much to themselves, and from their mixing with the soldiers. It may be found more to the advantage of the crown, and the officers likewise, if officers, on duty in this settlement, were allowed a certain quantity of grain to support their live stock, until they have a market to go to: and I make no doubt but that, in the third year from the time settlers arrive, there will be a market, well supplied with grain, poultry, hogs, and goats, of all which there has been a great increase, but killed from wanting corn to support them: and the natives so frequently setting fire to the country, which they do to catch the opossum, flying squirrel, and other animals, has prevented swine from being turned out, as was intended.

If this plan, of distributing among the settlers, those convicts who are

3 A

not

not immediately necessary for carrying on the public works, is approved of, and which I suppose will, as appearing to me most likely to render this settlement indepen-

dent for the necessaries of life in the shortest time possible, there are many regulations which will of course take place.

[*To be concluded in our next.*]

## JOURNEY FROM DAMASCUS TO BARUTH, SAYDE, AND ST. JOHN D'ACRE, &c.

BY M. PAGES.

WE departed from Damascus for Baruth, and marched towards the mountain, which we kept on our right: we ascended it by a commodious road, and towards ten o'clock, after eight hours march, we stopped at a small village. There I eat fruits, milk diet, and pulse, which were remarkably good, though the soil was little cultivated, and excessively dry.

The following night we set off. Towards two in the morning, and after some easy ascents and descents, we followed a narrow but long defile, which brought us to a vast and long plain in form of a little valley, named the Beca. It was marshy, and of a blackish soil, very fertile. Through the middle of this plain flowed a river, which we passed. Some time after we arrived at a village, which serves as a store-house for the grain produced by that neighbourhood. The third night, at the same time, we departed hence, and climbed up lofty and steep, but extremely well cultivated mountains. The ascents and descents were very difficult. We were more than once obliged to alight, and several of our mules fell down.

Upon our way, fruits were brought us of all kinds, of which there is great plenty among those rocks. What little ground there was, was planted either with vines or mulberries, and fruit trees. We rested at a little house, where there were vestiges of a considerable fountain, which watered the mulberry-trees in its vicinity.

I remarked the difference of cul-

ture of these trees in Asia and Europe. In the latter part of the world, they are left to grow as they will; whereas here they are pruned, by plucking off the leaves: they were at most eight or nine feet high.

I was every where well received. The most general food in that country is fresh and soured milk, and loaves baked on the sides of a cylinder of masonry, heated by a fire lighted within.

The inhabitants of those mountains seemed to me distinguished for their noble simplicity. I found in them neither the pride of the Turks of Damascus, nor the meanness and submission which appeared in the faces of the Christians of the same city. These Christians of Damascus live rather like slaves than men, by the tyranny of the Mahometans, and by their meanness in most of their actions. We departed at night, as we were but a short day's journey from Baruth. After having continued our road towards the top of those mountains, I discovered the Mediterranean, and thanked God for having conducted me to a sea which washed the shore of my country. The weather was cloudy, and it was long since I had seen the clouds heaped upon one another as I then saw them, or the rain fall; yet I began to regret the heat of the climates I had left behind, for the nights were cool upon these mountains.

We descended them gently, and I discovered a plain, whose verdure enchanted the eye. On the descent, the springs water and overflow by intervals

intervals the slope of the hills, and they give a verdure to the little soil which is to be found among those rocks: they join afterwards themselves, and forming large rivulets which, branching into canals, water the rest of the hill and the plain. On the entrance of that plain we found a little fort or castle, situated near a small river, which commands a vast prospect over mulberry-trees, which it waters as well as the greatest rains. We crossed this forest of mulberry-trees, which stretches over that vast plain. The soil is so well cultivated, that there is not a single inch left barren; but water becomes scarcer, as we remove from the mountains. At length we discovered the city of Baruth, where we arrived towards nine o'clock. I went to the custom-house, where after having my baggage examined, I repaired to the hospital of the Capuchins, the common asylum, where those good fathers receive all strangers.

The Jesuits of Damascus had given me a letter to the superior of one of their hospitals, situated in Quesrouan. That part of the mountains of Libanus is inhabited by the Maronites alone, whom I had resolved to visit. I took minute informations from the superior of the Capuchins, whose mild and calm physiognomy perfectly corresponded with the purity of his mind, and the true zeal with which he was animated for his function of his mission.

I remained only two days at Baruth, which is but a small and ill-built town. It is, together with a great part of the mountains, in the power of an Emir, tributary to the Turks, which secures him from their vexations: It is inhabited by Christians and Mahometans, who live in good understanding, through the mutual fear of the justice of government, which is altogether impartial; or else dreading immediate punishment for any insults, which is often inflicted upon the spot.

I departed for Quesrouan, whose natural defences had been so much

extolled to me by the number of inaccessible mountains, in which it is as it were buried. They had also much boasted the number and valour of its inhabitants, and the quantity of convents there for both sexes. Indeed I was assured, that the Catholic religion was as fully exercised there as in France, the inhabitants not suffering any other sect to live among them.

I crossed a part of the plain of Baruth, where a little river flows, and continued my way to the sea-shore by the way of Tripoli. I arrived at the foot of a mountain, which is ascended by a flight of stairs cut in the rock. This work has been made by the Romans, who have placed divers inscriptions in it. It is about twelve feet wide, and they have cut holes in the rock lest the horses should slip: they have even taken the precaution to put rails on the side of the sea, which rolls beneath among the rocks, where we behold the most dreadful precipice.

After having ascended by that way, which is easy enough, and having likewise descended on the other side, two leagues from Baruth, I passed a river called Dog's River. There the sea-shore presents a whole region of mulberry-trees, watered by the river, which is distributed by means of canals. I did not turn that way, but went to the right, going along the bank of the river, which although hemmed in at first by two mountains, almost perpendicular, grows wider afterwards, and is planted with mulberry-trees. The declivity of the mountain to the left was wrought into an amphitheatre, watered and planted in the same manner. I crossed the river at a ford, above a long bridge, where there is an inscription, and I began to ascend near a mill upon a rough and unpleasant path. Being arrived at the top, I visited a convent of Maronite monks, called Louisy. Their church is decent. There, from the top of a hill, I dis-

covered the environs of the Jesuits' hospital, named Aintoura: I made to it, going down hill, and passing through a large village, I crossed a very narrow dale, whose soil, like all that country, was covered with mulberry and fig-trees, and with vines; but it was rather dry, being not well watered. I ascended the slope of this mountain, leaving a well-planted country to the right behind me, and farther off a large village; after going a league, still coasting the mountains, I discovered on a small eminence some houses, and a convent of nuns, who are under the direction of the Jesuits. Afterwards I arrived at this hospital, which lies two leagues off the Dog River.

I was well received by the superior, to whom I imparted my wish of visiting the Quesrouan. He offered to give me all the assistance in his power. The hospital stands about one-third up the slope of a rough mountain, but which is all covered and planted. Though the soil is dry and gloomy, the vines and the trees thrive well. There is no village properly speaking, the houses are all dispersed. Besides the convent of nuns, a seminary is to be seen higher up, where the Jesuits labour in educating novices, who may be inclined to the priesthood; but they were confined in their local situation by a princess, the widow of an Emir, who professing the Christian religion, had requested a part of that seminary to reside in.

The superior brought me acquainted with a Sheick or Lord, who lived two leagues off, at a village called Jelton. The greater part of the reigning family of the Christian Sheicks, which is very numerous, and divided in several branches, resides in this village. The third day after my arrival he gave me a letter for the Sheick, and I set forward on my journey.

After having ascended considerably, I passed on the height a little

wood of pine-trees. The surface of the mountain was dry. I saw to the left the dales of Aintoura, and to the right an immense valley, formed by the Dog River, and the amphitheatre of the lofty mountains of the Antiquesrouan, on which I discovered the possessions of the Emir of Solyma, whose village lay hidden behind a little hill.

On the side of this great valley, where the Dog River flows, there is a rich spring, which supplies this river with water, which is also increased by rivers, that pour into it from the higher parts of the valley. This source springs from a profound cavern and anti-cavern. This anti-cavern, which occurs at first, is very capacious, and formed in the rock, where there hangs a quantity of fine crystallizations.

The cavern that follows is lower on the declivity, and difficult of access. Besides the chrysellizations, which are found there likewise, one springs from the vault, and falling within one foot of the ground, seems to form a kind of pillar of the size of a man. Through an aperture, the course of the water from its source may be seen, which passing underneath those caverns, produces by its abundance and fall a considerable murmur. I ascended afterwards another very high mountain, at the foot of which is the residence of a bishop, and upon which is the village of Jelton. The soil was still stony and dry, but the mulberry-trees were very fresh. Though this village is in a better condition than the others, yet the houses do not seem to indicate it to be the residence of the Sheicks, or the lords of the country. These lords are well united among themselves, and lead a frugal, but noble and easy life: they might pass rather for rich peasants than lords; and it is to this simplicity and want of luxuries, that those mountaineers owe the bravery which renders them free, and independent of the vexations of the Turks. They pay, however, the same

same tribute as they do to the Grand Signior; and they never fail, though their natural fortifications would engage them to revolt.

I went down to the Sheick, to whom I was directed; he was not at home, but there were several of his relations amusing themselves under an arbour of vines: they treated me politely, and I was soon after well received by the master of the house. He recommended to one of his sons not to lose sight of me, and to conduct me to such places as might be most entertaining and agreeable. He did not suffer me to depart until the third day of my arrival, and I spent my time among different Sheicks, who gave me good collations, as did likewise some refugee merchants, and the nuns of Aintoura, when I went to visit them. I made one of their assemblies, which they held under the trees; they never failed to take me along with them to divine service, or to an assembly in the evening, where all the youth met. In this assembly, after some amusing discourse, a pious lecture is given, and they recite some prayers. I was surprised to see so much urbanity among those people. The mildness of the character of the Sheick's son, who accompanied me every where, seemed to me most engaging.

That village is situated on a dry

and stony soil, and has no other waters but that of the wells and cisterns; but its elevation on the third degree of the amphitheatre of the mountains forms its strength, and has determined those lords to fix upon it for their residence. The whole country of Quesrouan belongs to them: taxes are paid to them, and they pay in their turn a constant tax to the Emir, who is himself a tributary to the Grand Signior. They administer justice, and assess the imposts; but the difference of degrees is not so great as in Europe, and every man here knows his own station. The Catholics alone are looked upon as inhabitants, and even the Turks pay a duty upon the road to Tripoli, which through the lower dependencies of that country the Christians alone are exempted.

When the inhabitants of this country go a certain distance from their village, they arm themselves from head to foot. An injury never remains unpunished among them; this accounts for the boldness of their appearance, which without bordering on effrontery, indicates a masculine character, though still good and affable. They are sympathising and hospitable, and I think them witty, of a joking, and perhaps even ironical disposition.

[To be concluded in our next.]

## ON ALCHEMY.

FROM CURIOSITIES OF LITERATURE.

IT was but the other day, I read an advertisement in a newspaper, from one who pretends to have made great discoveries in the hermetic art. With the assistance of 'a little money,' he could 'positively' assure the lover of this science, that he would repay him 'a thousand fold!' This science, if it merits to be distinguished by the name, is most certainly an imposition; which, striking on the feeblest part of the human mind, has so frequently been

successful in carrying on its delusions.

As late as the days of Mrs. Manley, the authoress of the *Atalantis*, is there on record a most singular delusion of alchemy. The recollection, whether it was herself, or another person, on whom it was practised, has now escaped me. From the circumstances, it is very probable, the sage was not less deceived than the patroness.

It appears, that an infatuated lover

lover of this delusive art met with one who pretended to have the power of transmuting lead to gold. This hermetic philosopher required only the materials, and time, to perform his golden operations. He was taken to the country residence of his patroness: a long laboratory was built; and, that his labours might not be impeded by any disturbance, no one was permitted to enter into it. His door was contrived to turn round on a spring; so that, unseen, and unseeing, his meals were conveyed to him, without distracting the sublime contemplations of the sage.

During a residence of two years, he never condescended to speak but two or three times in the year to his insatuated patroness. When she was admitted into the laboratory, she saw, with pleasing astonishment, stills, immense cauldrons, long flues, and three or four Vulcanian fires blazing at different corners of this magical mine; nor did she behold with less reverence the venerable figure of the dusty philosopher. Pale and emaciated, with daily operations and nightly vigils, he revealed to her, in unintelligible jargon, his progresses: and, having sometimes condescended to explain the mysteries of the arcana, she beheld, or seemed to behold, streams of fluid, and heaps of solid ore, scattered around the laboratory. Sometimes he required a new still, and sometimes, vast quantities of lead. Already this unfortunate lady had expended the half of her fortune, in supplying the demands of the philosopher. She began now to lower her imagination to the standard of reason. Two years had now elapsed, vast quantities of lead had gone in, and nothing but lead had come out. She disclosed her sentiments to the philosopher. He candidly confessed, he was himself surprised at his tardy processes; but that now he would exert himself to the utmost, and that he would venture to perform a laborious operation which,

hitherto, he had hoped not to have been necessitated to employ. His patroness retired, and the golden visions of expectation resumed all their lustre.

One day, as they sat at dinner, a terrible shriek, and one crack followed by another, loud as the report of cannon, assailed their ears. They hastened to the laboratory: two of the greatest stills had burst; one part of the laboratory was in flames, and the deluded philosopher scorched to death!

An author, who wrote in the year 1704, presents us with the following anecdote, concerning an alchymical speculation.

'The late Duke of Buckingham, being over-persuaded by a pack of knaves, who called themselves chemical operators, that they had the secret of producing the philosopher's stone, but wanted money to carry on the process; his Grace engaged to assist them with money to carry on the work, and performed his promise at a vast expence. A laboratory was built, utensils provided, and the family filled with the most famous artists in the transmutation of metals—Adepts of a superior class, who would concern themselves only about the grand Elixir, and a pack of shabby curs, to attend the fires, and do other servile offices; and yet, forsooth, must be also called philosophers.

'This great charge continued upon the duke for some years; for, whoever was unpaid, or whatever was neglected, money must be found to bear the charge of the laboratory, and pay the operators; till this chimera, with other extravagancies, had caused the mortgaging and selling many fine manors, lordships, towns, and good farms.

'All this time, nothing was produced by these sons of art of any value; for, either the glass broke, or the man was drunk and let out the fire, or some other misfortune, still attended the grand process, at the time assigned for *a je ne sçai quoi*



to be produced, that must turn all things to gold. The duke encountering nothing but disappointments, and the operators finding themselves slighted, and money very difficult to be had, the project fell!

Penotus, who died at ninety-eight years of age, in the hospital of Sierdon in Switzerland, had spent nearly his whole life in researches after the philosopher's stone; and becoming, at length, from affluent circumstances, reduced to beggary and reason, was accustomed to say—'that if he had a mortal enemy, that he durst not encounter openly, he would advise him, above all things, to give himself up to the study and practice of alchymy.'

Every philosophical mind must be convinced that alchymy is not an art, which some have fancifully traced to the *remotest times*; it may be rather regarded, when opposed to such a distance of time, as a modern imposture. Cæsar commanded the treatises of alchymy to be burnt throughout the Roman dominions; and this shews the opinion of one who is not less to be admired as a philosopher than as a monarch.

Mr. Gibbon has this succinct passage relative to alchymy—'the ancient books of alchymy, so liberally ascribed to Pythagoras, to Solomon, or to Hermes, were the pious frauds of more recent adepts. The Greeks were inattentive either

to the use or abuse of chymistry. In that immense register, where Pliny has deposited the discoveries, the arts, and the errors, of mankind, there is not the least mention of the transmutations of metals; and the persecution of Dioclesian is the first authentic event in the history of alchymy. The conquest of Egypt, by the Arabs, diffused that vain science over the globe. Congenial to the avarice of the human heart, it was studied in China, as in Europe, with equal eagerness and equal success. The darkness of the middle ages ensured a favourable reception to every tale of wonder; and the revival of learning gave new vigour to hope, and suggested more specious arts to deception. Philosophy, with the aid of experience, has at length banished the study of alchymy; and the present age, however desirous of riches, is content to seek them by the humbler means of commerce and industry.'

After this, will it be credited that, even in this enlightened age, a writer should stand forth as its advocate? Mr. Andrews, in his anecdotes, has an article concerning alchymy. His account of Nicholas Flamel is not accurate. He attributes 'his mysterious prosperity to that *great secret* which has been sought for through ages, and which, to *this day*, has its *believers*.' Of these *believers*, undoubtedly, Mr. Andrews is one!

## THE COUNTENANCE AN INDICATION OF THE INTERIOR CHARACTER.

BY THE MARQUIS D'ARGENSON.

THE countenance is a thing merely exterior, but, from which, there are certain consequences to be drawn, to know the interior character and dispositions of persons. A firm and steady countenance supposes that a man preserves a presence and a composure of mind; on the contrary, an embarrassed countenance indicates confusion, and a

disturbed mind. Therefore those who are expert in galantry, like skilful politicians, know how to take advantage of the appearance of the countenance to forward their designs.

It would be equally impolite and awkward to discompose women in public; there are private opportunities when we ought to be less circumspect. So the politician, in his private

private conferences, hazards blunt and unexpected propositions, observes the effects they produce upon him who was not prepared to receive them, according to which he pushes his point, or retreats. A certain and general rule in society is, that an amiable man never strives to embarrass any body, and takes such measures as not to be embarrassed himself; for nothing but embarrassment makes men of sense appear like fools.

As soon as a man is in place, or has acquired a fortune, he presently acquires haughtiness and airs of importance, which is easily believed to be the distinguishing mark and proof of superiority. Nevertheless the more we are elevated, the more affable we ought to be, except on certain occasions, wherein it is necessary to shew that we feel what we are, and to check those who would otherwise forget it, and fail in what is due to us.

I have somewhere read, that we ought never to lay aside an air of authority, so far as not to have it in our power to resume it when necessary: because appearance is often necessary to evince reality.

Never make a great blow with a timid air, the effect would be lost: but appear to pity those whom you are obliged to punish; seem sorry to refuse those whose demands you cannot comply with, and to be happy and satisfied at having it in your power to confer upon them some favour. I shall be answered that all this is soon said, but very delicate and difficult of execution; I acknowledge it; but it is what a man in place must study to acquire. *Hic meta laborum.*

Great babblers and tale-bearers have seldom a firm countenance, or, at least, easily lose it. Fools never have it; but half wits possess it sometimes, and then it is a great merit in them, as it conceals a part of their folly. As a grave countenance is generally accompanied with slowness in deliberation, this gives

time to reflect upon what is to be said or done; men of this description make fewer mistakes and foolish expressions.

The countenance of superiors is never embarrassing to people who have been well brought up; he has learned betimes the danger of being insolent; but meanness is always contemptible. Moreover, as an honest man has nothing to reproach himself with, he is never embarrassed in answering questions which are put to him; and, if he has to ask in his turn, he gives his reasons with that confidence which virtue and justice inspire. It is equally necessary to be brief in the exposition of our reasons, in the narration of circumstances and stories; in these we ought to press on to the point upon which they turn, abridge the preambles, and say no more than is necessary to lead to and discover it. The same in requisitions, no more should be said than is absolutely necessary to make known the desired object, and the reasons which may be decisive and determinate, for the person to whom the requisition is made, divesting it also of every accessory, and changing the prologue into an overture.

It is more difficult for superiors to conduct themselves with their inferiors. To receive well a solicitation, they ought to know to whom they speak, and be acquainted with the matter in question, which is not always the case on the first approach; whilst they are ignorant of the business, they ought to watch and attend; neither to discourage nor flatter with hopes, but to hearken, and, if it be necessary, to bring, by degrees, the solicitor to the point, always avoiding all appearance of unfavourable prepossession: finally, to promise nothing but what they are sure to perform, and to give no hopes but such as are just and reasonable. Moreover they ought to blend their politeness with that art which is not acquired but by a great knowledge of the world, and which cannot

cannot be learned in the dust of the cabinet. Business is done by men, and with men; but, on the one hand, those who have lived enough amongst them to acquire the art of satisfying a numerous audience, have frequently led too dissipated lives to have profoundly studied the bottom

of affairs with which they are charged; on the other, men who have grown pale over papers, have not been sufficiently in the world. In both these cases there are risks, but rational people are well aware of them, and take their measures accordingly.

## ON FASHIONS.

THE origin of many, probably of most fashions, was in the endeavour to conceal some deformity of the inventor. Thus Charles the seventh of France, introduced long coats, to hide his ill made legs. Shoes, with very long points, full two feet in length, were invented by Henry Plantaganet, duke of Anjou, to conceal a very large excrescence which he had upon one of his feet.

Sometimes, fashions are quite reversed in one age from those of another. Thus bags, when first in fashion in France, were only worn *en dishabille*. In visits of ceremony, the hair was tied in a ribband, and floated over the shoulders—all which is exactly contrary to our present fashion. Queen Isabella, of Bavaria, as remarkable for her gallantry as the fairness of her complexion, introduced a fashion of leaving the shoulders and part of the neck uncovered.

In England, about the reign of Henry the fourth, they wore long-pointed shoes, to such an immoderate length, that they could not walk

till they were fastened to their knees with chains. Luxury improving on this ridiculous mode, it was the custom of an English beau of the fourteenth century to have these chains of gold or silver. A very accurate account of one of this description may be found in Henry's history of Great Britain, in his chapter on manners, &c. vol. IV. The ladies of that period were not less fantastical in their dress; and it must be confessed, that the most cynical satirist can have no reason, on a comparison with those times, to censure our present modes.

To this article, as it may probably arrest the volatile eye of our fair reader, we add what may serve as a hint for the heightening of her charms. Tacitus remarks of Poppea, the queen of Nero, that she concealed a part of her face: 'To the end,' he adds, 'that the imagination having fuller play by irritating curiosity, they might think higher of her beauty than if the whole of her face had been exposed.'

## REMARKS ON THE FLOATING OF CORK BALLS IN WATER.

BY MR. BANKS, LECTURER OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

PERHAPS no simple appearance seems so generally misunderstood as that of cork balls, &c. on water, and as one false principle adopted, is often productive of more, a few observations on so simple a phenomenon, may not be thought below the notice of the learned, although perfectly acquainted with the true cause. That clean bubbles of glass or pieces of cork, left to swim in

water, contained in clean vessels of glass or china, and at the distance of about one inch from the side, will approach that side is certain, and it appears that this and similar experiments have frequently been made by philosophers to prove the attraction of these bodies. To this I cannot assent for different reasons, which I presume are supported in the following experiments; the experi-

ments are made in a vessel of glass or earthen ware, five or six inches in diameter.

Experiment I. If a clean cork be wet and placed about one inch from the side of the containing vessel, it will approach the side with an accelerated motion.

Experiment II. If two corks be placed about an inch from each other, and at a sufficient distance from the side, they approach each other in the same manner.

Experiment III. Pour water into the vessel till it is rather higher than the brim. Place the cork close by the side, and it recedes with a retarded motion.

Experiment IV. Sink a piece of metal in the center of the vessel, so that the top thereof may be above the surface of the water; the cork placed at a proper distance, will approach it.

Experiment V. Raise the water till the metal is covered, and the cork will remain at rest at any distance from the metal.

In all the experiments, the water which surrounds the balls is elevated by capillary attraction, as also by the side of the containing vessel, except in experiment the third.

Experiment VI. Pieces of dry cork, or painted balls, placed gently on water, and near each other, also approach each other; but if one is placed near the side of the containing vessel, adjoining to which the water is elevated, it will recede.

In this experiment the surrounding fluid is depressed.

Whether these bodies attract each other or not, I presume is not to be determined by these experiments, however, they are not intended to disprove any attraction, but rather to prove that there is some other more powerful cause on which the phenomena depend; if not, why does the ball in the third experiment, leave the side to which it adhered in the first? or how shall we account for the universal recess of balls, around which the fluid is depressed, from those around which it is

elevated? and why are they not attracted by bodies exceedingly near, when these bodies are perfectly covered with water?

These experiments, I know, are not of sufficient weight with some, who rank high among the literati, to prove that the phenomena are not owing to attraction; yet I presume the true cause has long since been explained upon hydrostatical principles, by Dr. W. T. Gravelande, &c. for as every body which swims, impresses the supporting fluid with a force equal to its own weight, the fluid re-acts, and presses the supported body with the same force; the sides of the body are also pressed by the surrounding fluid with forces which are as the depth; but if the encompassing water be raised by capillary attraction, the pressure will still be the same, or equal on opposite sides, so that without force, the body cannot move; but if it be placed so near the side that the water elevated by it joins that elevated by the side of the vessel, or by another ball, the pressure on that side is diminished, while that on the other side remaining the same, will cause it to approach the side of the other ball; and in the same manner, if the fluid is depressed when the cavities meet, the pressure on that side will be diminished, and they of consequence approach each other on the side of the vessel; and the recess in the third experiment is evidently owing to the pressure being superior on that side nearer to the glass when the fluid is elevated above it, and the elevation round the balls joins the declining surface near the edge. Some indeed have drawn directly the contrary conclusion; but when the elevated water which surrounds the ball, and is supported by it, is caused with one side to join the declining surface of the supporting fluid, it must then gravitate and press in all directions with more force, as there is more of it elevated above the surface of the supporting water.

RE-

## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

OBSERVATIONS AND REMARKS IN A JOURNEY THROUGH SICILY AND CALABRIA, IN THE YEAR 1791: With a Postscript, containing some Account of the Ceremonies of the last holy Week at Rome, and of a short Excursion to Tivoli. By the Reverend Brian Hill, A. M. 8vo. London, 1791.

WE have often had occasion to remark on the absurdity of many travellers, who think, because what they have seen is new to them, it must be so to every other person; and that every one, who has money enough in his pocket to make a tour, has sense enough to put his observations on paper, so as to merit the attention of the public.

The author of this book is brother to the celebrated Sir Richard Hill; he tells us he only put these pages to paper to refresh his memory; but a few of his intimates requested a sight of it, and urged the publication. He had resolved, he tells us, to print them in the Shrewsbury Chronicle, but that would not do; and so, at the pressing request of his friends, we have these delectable observations.

Mr. Hill and his company sailed from Naples to Palermo. In this voyage Mr Hill saw the island of Caprea, and informs us, convinced no doubt of the importance of the observation, that Tiberius spent the last ten years of his life in it. Next we have a history of Palermo. Our Englishman visited Prince Caramanico, who, he tells us, gave place to his brother as a foreigner out of politeness, but does not inform us whether the same compliment was paid to himself. A number of remarks of equal importance are to be met with in this work. Visiting the Capuchin convent, our author saw the vaults where the dead bodies are set upright in cloaths, for which situation, Mr. Hill tells

us, they were prepared by broiling them six or seven months upon a gridiron over a slow fire; a good way of preserving our ancestors.

The horrid practice of stabbing, so much noticed by travellers, is again confirmed by Mr. Hill, who gives instances which happened during his stay at Palermo.

Our travellers proceeded from Palermo to Favorotta and Castella Mare, and complains much of the roads and accommodation; they then moved to Segesta, and here our author gives us an anecdote of his Sicilian majesty and his predecessor, highly worth preserving, because it shews these Lord's anointed in such striking colours.

But his Sicilian majesty has certainly a much better taste for macaroni, which he devours in vast quantities, even with the *lazaroni*, or common people, than he has for antiquities or improvements.

Next to eating macaroni, the favourite amusements of the Neapolitan monarch are hunting and shooting; though the bliss he obtains from the latter, must be of a very uncommon kind, as will be evident from the manner in which his majesty pursues, or rather murders his game.

If the object of the royal vengeance be pheasants, he has three or four hundred of these poor animals, which are as tame as barn-door fowls, (particularly at his hunting seat in the little island of Procita) confined within a small inclosed compass, himself being seated in an alcove above, by the front of which the *chasseurs* drive the birds one after another, without a minute's delay, whilst his majesty fires at them as fast as he can discharge his pieces, and when he is tired of the excellent sport, boasts that he has killed with his own-hand two or three hundred pheasants in an hour's time. (This intelligence we got from the king's own *garde de chasse* on the spot at Procita.)

That the late king had precisely the same penchant for the sports of the field with his present majesty, and that he at least paid as much attention to the preservation of his game, the following anecdote will fully evince.

Not many years ago he ordered all the cats in the island of Procita to be destroyed, under the idea that they killed his pheasants;

sants; this bloody sentence was executed with rigour, but the inhabitants soon became sensible of its bad effects, for the rats and mice multiplied to such a degree, that the whole produce of the island was in danger, and the former even attacked the children in their cradles. A petition was presented to the king, setting forth the grievance, to which his majesty immediately gave ear, and made another decree in favour of the cats, who soon did their duty so well, that though the pheasants do not appear at all diminished, there are few rats to be seen.

This island of Procita was once part of a Grecian colony, and to this day all the women and girls wear the ancient Grecian dress, which is very singular and becoming. At our request two or three females adorned themselves in their holiday cloaths. We had beds in the palace, but alas! alas! we had quite too many bedfellows of the hopping and creeping kind, *pidocchi, cimici, e pulci da vero*. When *la caccia de cinghiale*, or hunting and shooting the wild boar is the diversion his majesty fixes on, and which he usually prefers to all others, he then sometimes goes to Astroni, near Naples, where in the crater of an extinct volcano, three miles in circumference, but which is now filled with noble timber trees, are several hundreds of those animals, which flock in droves to be fed at the keeper's whistle, though we were obliged to conceal ourselves behind a wall to prevent their seeing us. This wall, however, which was so friendly to our curiosity, is very inimical to the poor boars, as the king stations himself behind it in order to shoot them, and will sometimes massacre fifty or an hundred in a day. He then registers his feats in a book, mentioning both the number and the size of the boars he has killed with his own hand. As a proof of this king's extraordinary piety, a newspaper would say piety extraordinary, when madness was in his kennels, he made the poor quadrupeds hear mass, put his hand into their mouths, and said he was certain no hurt could then befall him or them. This we had from one who is honoured with his particular friendship and attention.

What exquisite taste his majesty has for the fine arts, evidently appears by the paintings in his grand palace at Caserta, the apartments of which are adorned with pictures of his different sea-ports, and representations of his hunting the wild boars, in most of which the king himself makes the principal figure. The royal orders are, that the colours must be all bright and glaring, without any shade or softening whatever. But as this mandate causes some of the state rooms to look as if they were hung with shew-boards for a puppet-shew, so it sadly fetters the genius of that very able artist Mr. Hackert, who has the honour of being the king's first painter.

The anecdotes of his landlady, the conduct of his guards, and various other circumstances, are such close copies of Mr. Brydone, that we have little doubt our author had that gentleman's book with him. The Prince of Palagonia, mentioned by Mr. Brydone, as Mr. Hill tells us, is dead, but many of his whimsical figures still remain.

One thing we are constantly informed of in these *observations on Sicily*, is, how Mr. Hill and his company fared, how he slept, when the fleas bit him, and many other matters of equal importance.

Leaving Palermo, our author travelled along the coast to Bogaria, Termini, Cefalu, Broto, and Melazzo, to Messina; an account of the earthquake, in 1783, is thus related, from a person who, Mr. Hill says, was a spectator of that unhappy shock.

"On the fifth day of the present February, (1783) an unpropitious day, and ever to be had in remembrance by the beautiful Messina, about forty-eight minutes past eleven in the morning, the earth began to shake, at first slightly, then with such force, such bowelling, and with such various and irregular shocks, that the motion was similar to the rolling of the sea. The walls gave way on every side, knocked together, and crumbled to pieces; the roofs were tost into the air, the floors shattered, the vaults broken, and the strongest arches divided. By the force of three or four shocks, which succeeded each other without a moment's intermission, many houses were reduced to ruin, many palaces thrown down, and churches and steeples levelled with the ground. At the same time a long fissure was made in the earth upon the quay, and in an adjoining hill, while another part of the coast was covered by waves. At that instant a vast cloud like albes rose furiously from the horizon in the north-west, reached the zenith, and descended in the opposite quarter. It grew darker at the moment of the concussion, extended its dimensions, and almost obscured the whole hemisphere. At the same time also appeared upon the tops of the houses and palaces that were falling to pieces, a sudden and transient flame, like those lightnings that glance from the summer clouds, leaving behind it a sulphureous smell.

"The wretched inhabitants now left their houses in the greatest terror and confusion, calling upon God with piteous cries for succour, and running to and fro about the



the streets, not knowing whither they should flee. In the mean while the buildings on each side were falling upon them, and the earth almost continually trembling under their feet, so that in the short space of three minutes they were almost all collected together in the squares and open places of the city, under the dreadful apprehensions of instant death. Every eye was bathed with tears, and every heart palpitated with fear, while they experienced an addition to their misery, by being exposed to the violence of a tempestuous wind, attended with torrents of hail and rain. It is impossible for the pencil of the most ingenious painter to delineate, or for the pen of the most able writer to describe, the horror and confusion of these wretched people. Each one sought for safety in flight, and many in seeking it met with death. Others were buried alive under the falling houses, others hung upon the beams, others upon the thresholds of the windows and balconies, from whence by means of ropes and ladders they with difficulty escaped with their lives, and others miserably perished, either under the stones and rubbish of their own dwellings, or from the buildings, which fell upon them as they passed through the streets.

"They who escaped unhurt, spent the rest of the day in preparing a place of shelter against the approaching night. Some little ill-built cabins, composed of furniture taken from the ruins, were raised in the space of a few hours, within which they lay together in promiscuous companies upon the bare ground.

"The earth in the mean time continued to shake incessantly, with a noise similar to a furious cannonading, which seemed to proceed from within its bowels. Sometimes the shocks were weak, sometimes strong, and so continued till midnight, when with a most tremendous noise the shaking assumed a redoubled fury, and threw down all those edifices that had resisted the former shocks. Then fell part of the walls of the cathedral, the magnificent steeple, two hundred and twenty-five palms in height, part of the great hospital, the seminary of the priests, the remainder of the student's college, the front of the palaces upon the quay, many churches, convents and monasteries, together with multitudes of private houses. At the same time the sea rose with an extraordinary roaring to a vast height, overflowed a long tract of land near a little lake called Il Pantanello, and carried back with it some poor cottages that were there erected, together with all the men, animals and vessels it met with in its passage, leaving upon the land, which had been overthrown, a great quantity of fish of various kinds.

"From twelve o'clock of the aforesaid fifth of February to the midnight following,

the shocks were so frequent, that they succeeded each other without any interval longer than fifteen minutes, and continued much in the same manner till about three o'clock on the evening of the seventh, when the whole mine was sprung at once, and the last stroke given to the already ruined Messina. A cloud of dust that darkened the air rose from the falling city, and in this, more than in any of the former earthquakes, was felt a variety of motions undulatory, vertical, &c. which shattered the walls to pieces, destroyed many buildings from their very foundations, and, as if pounded in a mortar, spread them over the surface of the earth.

"Some few edifices that were founded upon rocks in the upper part of the city, are still standing, but they are for the most part so cracked and damaged, that it is dangerous to go near them."

Proceeding from Messina to Calabria, Mr. Hill strongly contests Sig. Recupero's account of the age of Mount Etna, as mentioned by Mr. Brydone. Mr. Hill here saw the terrible effects of the earthquake.

We shall conclude our remarks on this book with an account of an excursion our author, on his return to Terra Firma, made from Rome to Tivoli.

As no ceremonies took place yesterday, we went to see Tivoli, eighteen miles eastward of this city; all but the two last miles are over the Campagna, which on account of its low situation is so subject to the malaria, that the few inhabitants destined to cultivate the soil may be rather said to linger out than enjoy life.

The earth in places appears burnt, and sounds hollow; and there is in one part a considerable stream, so strongly impregnated with sulphureous particles, that the effluvia are carried by the wind to the distance of three or four hundred yards. The stench is hardly supportable, and the pungency little inferior to that of salts.

The town of Tivoli, once a place of great note, but now inconsiderable, is beautifully situated upon the side of the Apennine hills. It is famous for one of the finest cascades in Europe, different views of which have been taken by most of the landscape painters in Italy. The Tiberone, called by Horace Anio, of which it is composed, and which is about the size of the Avon at Bath, first takes one moderate leap about twenty feet, and thence a few yards farther precipitates itself under the arch of a bridge with great rapidity among broken rocks, which close by degrees, and conceal it from view, till it foams again into sight from under a great  
natural

natural vault, called Neptune's cave. It there finds a small shelf, or ledge, from whence it falls again as high as the first time. The magnificence of the scenery is at this place increased by a collateral stream, which tumbles from an high perpendicular rock. These two currents, thus joined, shortly fall again, and once more after that, force their way through a vast stony mass, which lies across their channel. This little sequestered spot, amidst the roar of so many cascades, and so closely embraced by rocks and mountains, is surely the highest treat that a lover of romantic prospects can enjoy. There are indeed few large trees to ornament the scene, but a variety of shrubs, and some vineyards.

The flower-de-luce, both white and purple, grows here in great quantities; and there is also a beautiful pale red flower, in all respects similar to the medea, except its colour.

On the top of one of the hills are the remains of an ancient temple, commonly called the Temple of the Sibyl, but some suppose, from its being of a round form, emblematical of the figure of the earth, that it was dedicated to Vesta. It was originally encompassed by eighteen fluted pillars of the Corinthian order, six of which are still remaining. The interior diameter is twenty-two feet. It stands in a court behind the inn, where is one of the best situations for viewing the cascade. Another small temple was erected near it, but the remains are now very trifling.

Some of the rocks are waved and indented in a very curious and beautiful manner, and were probably composed by the spray of the cascade, which carried with it minute particles of sand, and in process of time deposited a sufficient number to form a solid mass. I can upon no other principle account for the petrification of a carriage wheel which took place on this spot. The wheel itself, indeed, exists no more, but the incrustations formed round the spokes, the circumference and the nave, correspond so exactly to the respective parts, that no doubt can be entertained, that a real wheel was once inclosed within them. After all, I must own that I am not quite satisfied with this explanation of the case, as other rocks, at least a mile distant from the cascade, appear to be composed after the same manner, though there be not at present any water near them; they are, however, upon the declivity of the hill, and might formerly have been washed, by one of the collateral branches of the Arno.

In a vineyard near the town, are the remains of Mæcenæ's grand villa, consisting of three rows of arches on the edge of a precipice: a fine stream now runs through them, and soon joins others that tumble down the steep rocks in various parts. The extent of this villa affords a sufficient proof,

that Horace never paid too great a compliment to the dignity of his patron, whatever he might do to his merit. One pillar of a temple of Bacchus, is shewn near the entrance of the vineyard.

Upon leaving this classic ground, we took a walk in a very formal garden, belonging to the Duke of Modena, who has a large old palace at Tivoli, which, though delightfully situated, is at present uninhabited, and much out of repair.

Such was our entertainment yesterday; we suffered much from the heat of a Roman April, but having a comfortable inn at the Sybil, were sufficiently refreshed to see the remaining curiosities of Tivoli, and its environs, this morning.

We set out upon asses, and after an agreeable ride of two miles, came in view of a waterfall, which because less than the great torrent at Tivoli, is called *cascadella*. It consists of a large sheet of water, which presents itself to the eye through a grove of olives, and soon dividing, falls down a vast broken precipice. About a quarter of a mile farther, are four more cascades, tumbling down the same hill, two of them indeed comparatively small, but in any other situation, they would be considered as extremely fine. These, with the remains of Mæcenæ's villa, on the brow of the hill above, have chiefly employed the brush of the painter, and are considered by many as the most beautiful, but, if I may be allowed to turn connoisseur upon the merits of a cascade, I shall pronounce the first near the temple, the most picturesque, since that issues from the bosom of the mountain, whilst these only fall from its side.

We crossed the valley over an ancient consular bridge, again ascended by an old Roman road, and met our carriage at a small round temple, dedicated to the goddesses of Coughing.

We next went to Adrian's villa, an immense pile of ruins, at the bottom of the hill, where most of the best antiquities preserved in the different museums at Rome have been discovered. We were here shewn the remains of two amphitheatres, part of the soldiers' barracks, which consisted of an hundred chambers, all of the same dimensions, connected with each other, rooms for the slaves, with some fragments of temples, besides a large inclosed hollow, once filled with water, and intended for boat-races. The remains of this magnificent palace are all of brick, extremely massy. The royal apartments were lined with stucco, and adorned with beautiful fresco paintings, some small specimens of which are still preserved, as also of the marble pillars which originally stood in those chambers. While we were exploring these ruins, our Italian servant advised us to look under our feet, as he said there was a strong smell of serpents, which frequently

frequently lie in the long grafts that grows among the loose stones; however, we saw none. Hot and sultry.

TRAVELS THROUGH NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, GEORGIA, EAST AND WEST FLORIDA, THE CHEROKEE COUNTRY, THE EXTENSIVE TERRITORIES OF THE MUSCOCULGES OR CREEK CONFEDERACY, AND THE COUNTRY OF THE CHACTAWS. By William Bartram. Philadelphia printed, 1791, London reprinted, 1792, 8vo.

Mr. Bartram tells us, that he undertook his travels at the request of the late Dr. Fothergill, of London, to search the Floridas, the western parts of Carolina, and Georgia, for the discovery of rare and useful productions of nature, chiefly in the vegetable world; for which purpose he set sail from Philadelphia for Charleston, and from thence proceeded by sea to Savannah; from whence he went to Sunbury, and to the river Alatomaha. Leaving the frontier settlements, he entered the Indian country, and having surveyed a part of it, returned to Savannah. His next journey was from Savannah to Augusta, 165 miles from the sea. He describes the face of the country, the river, Savannah, and village of Augusta, and returns to Savannah. He next ascended the Alatomaha, visits the Creek settlement, proceeds to East Florida, the river of St. Johns, and having ranged about the Indian country, returned to Charleston. He next went to the Cherokee country, crosses into Georgia, visits Mount Magnolia, Mobile, the Creek nation, then to the south of Georgia, and back to Charleston.

Such are the outlines of our author's travels, and which take up three parts of his book; the fourth part contains an account of the Aborigines, of the country, their manners, customs, &c. &c.

Our author's chief view was to

make a botanical collection; to this, therefore, his chief attention was directed. He is, however, by no means an injudicious observer in other respects. Mr. Bartram was the son of John Bartram, botanist to the King of Great-Britain, and Fellow of the Royal Society. The advantages he derived from his father enable him to speak as a man of science on that part of natural history, and this with many persons may be thought to occupy too great a part of his work. But we think on the whole, readers of every denomination will be entertained. In the Introduction he speaks with rapture of his favourite study.

What power or faculty is it, that directs the cirri of the Cucurbita, Momordica, Vitis, and other climbers, towards the twigs of shrubs, trees, and other friendly support? We see them invariably leaning, extending, and like the fingers of the human hand, reaching to catch hold of what is nearest, just as if they had eyes to see with; and when their hold is fixed, to coil the tendril in a spiral form, by which artifice it becomes more elastic and effectual, than if it had remained in a direct line, for every revolution of the coil adds a portion of strength; and thus collected, they are enabled to dilate and contract as occasion or necessity requires, and thus by yielding to, and humouring the motion of the limbs and twigs, or other support on which they depend, are not so liable to be torn off by sudden blasts of wind or other assaults? Is it sense or instinct that influences their actions? it must be some impulse; or does the hand of the Almighty act and perform this work in our sight?

The vital principle or efficient cause of motion and action, in the animal and vegetable system, perhaps, may be more similar than we generally apprehend.—Where is the essential difference between the seed of peas, peaches, and other tribes of plants and trees, and the eggs of oviparous animals, as of birds, snakes, or butterflies, spawn of fish, &c.? Let us begin at the source of terrestrial existence. Are not the seeds of vegetables, and the eggs of oviparous animals fecundated, or influenced with the vivific principle of life, through the approximation and intimacy of the sexes? and immediately after the eggs and seeds are hatched, does not the young larva and infant plant, by heat and moisture, rise into existence, increase, and in due time arrive to a state of perfect maturity? The physiologists agree in opinion, that the work

work of generation in viviparous animals, is exactly similar, only more secret and enveloped. The mode of operation that nature pursues in the production of vegetables, and oviparous animals, is infinitely more uniform and manifest, than that which is or can be discovered to take place in viviparous animals.

Of the parental fondness of animals, he gives the following account.

The parental and filial affections seem to be as ardent, their sensibility and attachment as active and faithful, as those observed in human nature.

When travelling on the east coast of the isthmus of Florida, ascending the south Musquito river, in a canoe, we observed numbers of deer and bears, near the banks, and on the islands of the river; the bears were feeding on the fruit of the dwarf creeping chamærops; (this fruit is of the form and size of dates, and is delicious and nourishing food :) we saw eleven bears in the course of the day, they seemed no way surprised or affrighted at the sight of us. In the evening, my hunter, who was an excellent marksman, said he would shoot one of them, for the sake of the skin and oil, for we had plenty and variety of provisions in our bark. We accordingly, on sight of two of them, planned our approaches as artfully as possible, by crossing over to the opposite shore, in order to get under cover of a small island; this we cautiously coasted round, to a point, which we apprehended would take us within shot of the bears; but here finding ourselves at too great a distance from them, and discovering that we must openly show ourselves, we had no other alternative to effect our purpose, but making oblique approaches. We gained gradually on our prey by this artifice, without their noticing us: finding ourselves near enough, the hunter fired, and laid the largest dead on the spot where she stood; when presently the other, not seeming the least moved at the report of our piece, approached the dead body, smelled, and pawed it, and appearing in agony, fell to weeping and looking upwards, then towards us, and cried out like a child. Whilst our boat approached very near, the hunter was loading his rifle in order to shoot the survivor, which was a young cub, and the slain supposed to be the dam. The continual cries of this afflicted child, bereft of its parent, affected me very sensibly; I was moved with compassion, and charging myself as if accessory to what now appeared to be a cruel murder, endeavoured to prevail on the hunter to save its life, but to no effect! for by habit he had become insensible to compassion towards the brute creation: being now within a few

yards of the harmless devoted victim, he fired, and laid it dead upon the body of the dam.

To give our readers an idea of the manner in which the work is written, we shall extract the eighth chapter.

As a loading could not be procured until late in the autumn, for the schooner that was to return to Georgia, this circumstance allowed me time and opportunity to continue my excursions in this land of flowers, as well as at the same time to augment my collections of seeds, growing roots, &c.

I resolved upon another little voyage up the river; and after resting a few days and refitting my bark, I got on board the necessary stores, and furnishing myself with boxes to plant roots in, with my fuzee, ammunition and fishing tackle, I set sail, and in the evening arrived at Mount Royal. Next morning, being moderately calm and serene, I set sail with a gentle leading breeze, which delightfully wafted me across the lake to the west coast, landing on an airy, sandy beach, a pleasant, cool situation, where I passed the night, but not without frequent attacks from the musquitoes; and next day visited the great springs, where I remained until the succeeding day, increasing my collections of specimens, seeds and roots; and then recrossed the lake to the eastern shore. This shore is generally bolder and more rocky than the western, it being exposed to the lash of the surf, occasioned by the W. and N. W. winds, which are brisk and constant from nine or ten o'clock in the morning till towards midnight, almost the year round; though the S. winds are considerable in the spring, and by short intervals during the summer and winter; and the N. E. though sometimes very violent in the spring and autumn, does not continue long. The day was employed in coasting slowly, and making collections. In the evening I made a harbour under cover of a long point of flat rocks, which defended the mole from the surf. Having safely moored my bark, and chosen my camping ground just by, during the fine evening I reconnoitred the adjacent groves and lawns. Here is a deserted plantation, the property of Dr. Stork, where he once resided. I observed many lovely shrubs and plants in the old fields and orange groves, particularly several species of convolvulus and ipomea, the former having very large, white, sweet scented flowers: they are great ramblers, climbing and strolling on the shrubs and hedges. Next morning I re-embarked, and continued traversing the bold coast north-eastward, and searching the shores at all convenient landings, where I was amply rewarded

rewarded for my assiduity in the society of beauties in the blooming realms of Florida. Came to again, at an old deserted plantation, the property of a British gentleman, but some years since vacated. A very spacious frame building was settling to the ground and moulding to earth. Here are very extensive old fields, where were growing the West-Indian or perennial cotton and indigo, which had been cultivated here, and some scattered remains of the ancient orange groves, which had been left standing at the clearing of the plantation.

I have often been affected with extreme regret, at beholding the destruction and devastation which has been committed or indiscreetly exercised on those extensive fruitful orange groves, on the banks of St. Juan, by the new planters under the British government, some hundred acres of which, at a single plantation, have been entirely destroyed, to make room for the indigo, cotton, corn, batatas, &c. or, as they say, to extirpate the mosquitoes, alledging that groves near the dwellings are haunts and shelters for those persecuting insects. Some plantations have not a single tree standing; and where any have been left, it is only a small coppice or clump, nakedly exposed and destitute; perhaps fifty or an hundred trees standing near the dwelling-house, having no lofty cool grove of expansive live oaks, laurel magnolias, and palms, to shade and protect them, exhibiting a mournful, fallow countenance; their native perfectly formed and glossy green foliage as if violated, defaced and torn to pieces by the bleak winds, scorched by the burning sun-beams in summer, and chilled by the winter frosts.

In the evening I took my quarters in the beautiful ile in sight of Mount Royal. Next day, after collecting what was new and worthy of particular notice, I set sail again, and called by the way at Mount Royal. In the evening arrived safe at the stores, bringing along with me valuable collections.

AN ESSAY ON ARCHERY, *describing the Practice of that Art in all Ages and Nations.* By Walter Michael Moseley, Esq. 8vo. Worcester, 1792.

In the preface, Mr. Moseley takes a view of the authors who have written on archery. In the first chapter, he treats of the alterations which have taken place in the offensive arms made use of by mankind. He then treats of the bows used by different nations, and its va-

rious shapes; of the different kinds of arrows; of the whistling arrow he thus speaks—

There is a kind of arrow which, from the construction of its head, is called the whistling arrow. There are two methods in which the heads are made. The one is by having a ball of horn perforated with holes at the end, and fastened to the arrow, by the wood passing through it, and fitting tight. But this is not the most desirable kind; for as the perforations are liable to become choked up, by the arrow falling to the ground, the head must be taken off whenever the holes are thus filled; and as the horn ball does not adhere very firmly, if the arrow penetrate the earth to any depth, it is difficult to draw it back without losing the head. Another fort which are usually larger, and which have a deeper tone, are made with a screw in the middle of the ball; by which means all the inconveniences attending the smaller kind are removed, as the ball is in the latter case glued firmly to the body of the arrow, and may be drawn from the ground without danger of separating.

It is supposed these arrows were formerly applied to some military uses, and particularly giving signals in the night. The Chinese, I have been told, have used them for this purpose in time immemorial.

How long these arrows have been known in England is uncertain; but I have found no passage referring to them earlier than the time of Henry VIII.

In Holinshed we read, "that in the year 1515, the court lying at Greenwich, the king and queen, accompanied with many lords and ladies, rode to the high-ground of Shooter's-hill to take the open air; and as they passed by the way they espied a company of tall yeomen, clothed in green hoods, and bows and arrows, to the number of two hundred. Then one of them which called himself Robin Hood, came to the king, desiring him to see his men shoot, and the king was content. Then he whistled, and all the two hundred shot, and looked at once; and then he whistled again, and they likewise shot again. Their arrows whistled by craft of their head, so that the noise was strange and great, and much pleased the king and queen, and all the company. All these archers were of the king's guard, and had thus apparelled themselves to make sojourn to the king."

From the manner in which this story is told, we may be led to think the whistling arrow to have been a new thing in the beginning of the sixteenth century, and perhaps just introduced, otherwise the exhibition would have scarcely been worth performing before the king and his company.



Next he treats of poisoned arrows, divination by arrows, quivers, targets, the English long bow, the cross bow, and concludes with an account of some skilful archers, recorded in history.

I shall now lay before my readers some of the exploits of those heroes, who have individually signalized themselves as archers.

Nations, as well as men, have been famous in antiquity, for their skill in the management of the bow. The Cretan archers, were early employed by the Greeks, and were extremely valued by that people. The Persians were celebrated in all ancient histories, and appear to have been very expert; trusting as much to their arrows, as their swords. The Parthians were remarkable for their dexterity in shooting behind them, on an enemy pressing upon the rear, and whilst their horses were in full speed. This art, however, was by no means peculiar to the Parthians, as the Scythians and Sarmatians are reported to have shot in the same attitude. The inhabitants of India, and those bordering on that country, were all characterized of old, as skilful archers.

We must not enumerate the Greeks or Romans, among those nations excelling in archery, as they preferred the close attack; disdaining the bow, as tedious and uncertain. The Roman, inflamed with the hopes of signalizing himself by acts of personal bravery, stood with impatience while the enemy were beyond his grasp. Nor could he but despise that distant encounter, wherein the skill of every one was completely obscured. He chose the closer combat. His javelin flew with unerring aim. His sword struck irresistible; while his firm, though battered shield, glanced every well-directed weapon aside. This was the school wherein the Roman loved to study, and which taught him to view the archer with contempt.

Although the legions of the Roman state were unaccustomed to the use of the bow, archery was nevertheless cultivated by many private individuals. The circus was often the scene where feats of this kind were exhibited; and even emperors themselves were actors. Domitian and Commodus, have been particularly celebrated for their matchless excellence in managing the bow; but at the same time we admire the skill of these performers, we must allow, how little in character he must appear, who acts the archer in the imperial purple.

It is reported of Domitian, that he would often place boys in the circus at some distance from him, and as they held out their hands, and separated their fingers, he would shoot an arrow through either space, without injury to the hand of him who acted target.

The feats recorded of Commodus, are numerous; and he appears to have been one of the most expert archers history has made mention of.

It is said by Herodian, that his hand was unerring both with the javelin and with the bow; and that the most experienced Parthian archers, yielded to his superior skill. He would kill all kinds of animals in the amphitheatre by way of exercise, and to shew the steadiness of his arm. But it is observed, that he, in these cases, generally preferred to shew his art, rather than his courage; as he secured himself on a place elevated beyond the reach of any attack which might have happened from his opponents. Stags, lions, panthers, and all species of beasts, fell without number by his hand; nor was a second arrow necessary, for every wound proved mortal. He would strike an animal in any particular point he wished with the greatest accuracy, in the head, or in the heart. A panther was sometimes let loose in the circus, where a criminal was placed; and just as the animal was going to seize the culprit, he would drive an arrow so opportunely, that the man should escape unhurt. An hundred lions have been introduced at the same time upon the arena, and with an hundred shafts he would lay them lifeless. He caused arrows to be made with heads curved in a semicircular figure, and with these he could cut off the neck of an ostrich running in full speed.

This feat is, perhaps, the most difficult of the whole number, the ostrich being extremely swift of foot, and having a neck of very small magnitude. Herodian observes also, that when the emperor amputated the head of one of these animals, the stroke severed the parts so instantaneously, that the body sometimes proceeded several paces, as if still living; the motion not being immediately checked.

Constantius was much skilled in the practice of archery, and is said to have studied that art in his youth, under the direction of a preceptor.

Both the emperor Julian and Gratian are characterized as expert archers. The latter proposed to himself the actions of Commodus as examples, and like him, frequently exhibited to the public, the adroitness with which he could kill animals, running together in an enclosed place, by his arrows.

*THE AMERICAN GEOGRAPHY; or View of the present Situation of the United States of America. By Jedidiah Morse.*

Mr. Morse, in his preface, observes, that "so imperfect are all the accounts of America hitherto published,



filled, even by those who once exclusively possessed the best means of information, that from them very little knowledge of this country can be acquired. Europeans have been the sole writers of American geography, and have too often suffered fancy to supply the place of facts, and thus have led their readers into errors, while they professed to aim at removing their ignorance. But since the United States have become an independent nation, and have risen into empire, it would be reproachful for them to suffer this ignorance to continue; and the rest of the world have a right now to expect authentic information. To furnish this has been the design of the author of the following work; but he does not pretend that this design is complicated, nor will the judicious and candid expect it, when they consider that he has trodden, comparatively, an unbeaten path—that he has had to collect a vast variety of materials—that these have been widely scattered—and that he could derive but little assistance from books already published. Four years have been employed in this work, during which period, the author has visited the several states in the union, and maintained an extensive correspondence with men of science; and in every instance has endeavoured to derive his information from the most authentic sources: he has also submitted his manuscripts to the inspection of gentlemen in the states which they particularly described, for their correction.

Our author, like most writers on geography, prefaces his work with an introduction on astronomical geography, the planets, the solar system, fixed stars, earth, &c. after which he proceeds to an account of the discovery of America, a general description and chronological account of the discoveries and settlements of North America, and its division.

The following calculations, made by Thomas Hutchins, Esq. geographer of the United States, are curious.

The territory of the United States contains by computation a million of square miles, in which are 640,000,000 acres.  
Deduct for water 51,000,000  
589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania to the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods on the north, the river Mississippi, to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains by computation about four hundred and eleven thousand square miles, in which are

Acres, 263,040,000

Deduct for water, 43,040,000

To be disposed of by Congress, 220,000,000

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions similar to the old states near the Atlantic Ocean.

*Estimate of the number of acres of water, north and westward of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.*

In Lake Superior,	-	Acres, 21,952,780
Lake of the Woods,	-	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	-	165,200
Red Lake,	-	551,000
Lake Michigan,	-	10,368,000
Bay Puan,	-	1,216,000
Lake Huron,	-	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair,	-	89,500
Lake Erie, western part,	-	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers,	-	301,000

43,040,000

*Estimate of the number of acres of water within the Thirteen United States.*

In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north, to the boundary between the British territory and the United States,	-	410,000
In Lake Ontario,	-	2,390,000
Lake Champlain,	-	500,000
Chesapeake bay,	-	1,700,000
Albemarle bay,	-	330,000
Delaware bay,	-	630,000

All the rivers within the Thirteen States, including the Ohio, 2,000,000

7,960,000  
Total, 51,000,000

Mr.

Mr. Morse proceeds to give an account of the lakes, rivers, bays, mountains, soil, productions, population, government, and constitution, of the United States, their agriculture, commerce, and manufactures; and then proceeds to a particular description of each State.

The main design of the work being to give a good idea of the United States, this account occupies the greater part of the book, and a very slight account is given of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

We have perused this book with great pleasure, as it is by far the best account extant. In speaking of the face of the country, Mr. Morse observes—

1. It is a fact, well known to every person of observation who has lived in, or travelled through the southern states, that marine shells and other substances which are peculiar to the sea-shore, are almost invariably found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the surface of the earth. A gentleman of veracity told me, that in sinking a well many miles from the sea, he found at the depth of twenty feet, every appearance of a salt marsh, that is, marsh grass, marsh mud, and brackish water. In all this flat country until you come to the hilly land, wherever you dig a well, you find the water, at a certain depth, fresh and tolerably good; but if you exceed that depth two or three feet, you come to a saltish or brackish water that is scarcely drinkable, and the earth dug up, resembles, in appearance and smell, that which is dug up on the edges of the salt marshes.

2. On and near the margin of the rivers are frequently found sand hills, which appear to have been drifted into ridges by the force of the water. At the bottom of some of the banks in the rivers, fifteen or twenty feet below the surface of the earth, are washed out from the solid ground, logs, branches, and leaves of trees; and the whole bank, from bottom to top, appears streaked with layers of logs, leaves and sand. These appearances are seen far up the rivers, from eighty to one hundred miles from the sea, where, when the rivers are low, the banks are from fifteen to twenty feet high. As you proceed down the rivers toward the sea, the banks decrease in height, but still are formed of layers of sand, leaves and logs, some of which are entirely found, and appear to have been suddenly covered to a considerable depth.

3. It has been observed, that the rivers in the southern states frequently vary their

channels; that the swamps and low grounds are constantly filling up; and that the land in many places annually infringes upon the ocean. It is an authenticated fact, that no longer ago than 1771, at Cape Lookout on the coast of North-Carolina, in about latitude  $34^{\circ} 50'$  there was an excellent harbour, capacious enough to receive an hundred sail of shipping at a time, in a good depth of water. It is now entirely filled up, and is solid ground. Instances of this kind are frequent along the coast.

It is observable, likewise, that there is a gradual descent of about eight hundred feet, by measurement, from the foot of the mountains to the sea board. This descent continues, as is demonstrated by soundings, far into the sea.

To give our readers an idea of the manner in which this work is conducted, we shall extract the author's account of the State of Vermont.

Length, 155 miles, between  $42^{\circ} 50'$  and  $45^{\circ}$  north latitude.

Breadth, 60 miles, between  $1^{\circ} 30'$  and  $3^{\circ}$  east longitude.

*Boundaries.*] Bounded north, by Canada; east, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New-Hampshire; south, by Massachusetts; west, by New-York.

*Civil divisions.*] Vermont is divided into the seven following counties: Bennington, Rutland, Addison, Windham, Chittendon, Orange, and Windsor. Chief town, Bennington.

These counties are divided into townships, which are generally six miles square. In every township is a reserve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each; one to be appropriated for the support of public schools, the other to be given in fee to the first minister who settles in the township. A part of the townships were granted by the governor of New-Hampshire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In those townships granted by the former, a right of land is reserved for the support of the gospel in foreign parts; in those granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the support of county grammar schools, are reserved. In these reservations, liberal provision is made for the support of the gospel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

*Rivers.*] This state, on the east side of the mountain, is watered by Paubanhooiak, Quechey, Welds, White, Black and West rivers, which run from west to east into Connecticut river; and west of the mountains, by the river Lamoi, over which is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight rods in length, by Onion river and Otter Creek, which empty by one mouth into Lake Champlain, 20 or 30 miles south of St. John's. Otter Creek is navigable for boats 50 miles.

50 miles. The lands adjacent are of an excellent quality, and are annually enriched by the overflowing of the water, occasioned by the melting of the snow on the Green Mountains.

*Mountains.*] A chain of high mountains, running north and south, divides this state nearly in the center between Connecticut river and Lake Champlain. The height of land is generally from 20 to 30 miles from the river, and about the same distance from the New-York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a green appearance, and on this account has obtained the descriptive name of *Ver Mons*, Green Mountain. On some high parts of this mountain, snow lies till May, and sometimes till June.

*Face of the country, soil and productions.*] The country is generally hilly, but not rocky. It is finely watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. On the banks of the lakes, rivers and rivulets, are many fine tracts of rich interval land. The heavy growth of timber, which is common throughout the state, evince the strength and fertility of the soil. Elm, black birch, maple, ash and bals-wood, grow in the moist low ground; and the banks of the rivers are timbered principally with white pine, intermingled with vales of beech, elm and white oak. The inhabitants cultivate wheat, 25 and 30 bushels of which grow on an acre, rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, &c. The corn, however, is frequently cut off by the early frosts, especially on the mountains and hills. That which grows on the banks of the rivers is not so frequently injured. Flax is raised in considerable quantities, and the soil is good for hemp. Potatoes, pumpkins, and garden roots and vegetables, grow here in great plenty. Large quantities of sugar, of a good quality and flavour, are made from the sugar maple.

*Climate.*] None in the world more healthy. Snow begins to fall commonly in the beginning of November, and is generally gone by the middle of April. During this season, the inhabitants generally enjoy a serene sky, and a keen cold air. The ground is seldom frozen to any great depth, being covered with a great body of snow, before the severe frosts begin. In the spring, the snow, in common, is gradually dissolved by the warm influences of the sun. In this way the earth is enriched and moistened, and spring advances with surprising quickness.

*Militia, population and character.*] There are upwards of 17,000 men upon the militia rolls of this state. These consist of two divisions, one on the west, the other on the east side of the mountain. In those two divisions are 7 brigades, which are

made up of 21 regiments. From the number of militia, reckoning 5 for one, we may estimate the number of inhabitants in the state at 85,000. Others, who reckon 6 for one, estimate them at 100,000. The bulk of the inhabitants are emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendants. There is one settlement of Scotch people, which are almost the only foreigners in the state. As to the character, the manners, the customs, the laws, the policy and the religion of the people in Vermont, it is sufficient to say they are New Englandmen.

*Curiosities.*] In the township of Timmouth, on the side of a small hill, is a very curious cave. The chasm, at its entrance, is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you descend 104 feet, and then opens a spacious room 20 feet in breadth and 100 feet in length. The angle of descent is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which the water is continually percolating. The stalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the eaves of houses, and are continually increasing in number and magnitude. The bottom and sides are daily incrusting with spar and other mineral substances. On the sides of this subterraneous hall, are tables, chairs, benches, &c. which appear to have been artificially carved. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the spectator. If we might be indulged in assigning the general cause of these astonishing appearances, we should conclude from the various circumstances accompanying them, that they arise from water filtrating slowly through the incumbent strata; and taking up in its passage a variety of mineral substances, and becoming thus saturated with metallic particles, gradually exuding on the surface of the caverns and fissures, in a quiescent state, the aqueous particles evaporate, and leave the mineral substances to unite according to their affinities.

At the end of this cave is a circular hole, 15 feet deep, apparently hewn out, in a conical form, enlarging gradually as you descend, in the form of a sugar-loaf. At the bottom is a spring of fresh water, in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its depth has never been sounded.

*Constitution.*] The inhabitants of Vermont, by their representatives in convention, at Windsor, on the 25th of December, 1777, declared that the territory called Vermont, was, and of right ought to be a free and independent state; and for the purpose of maintaining regular government in the same, they made a solemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a constitution, of which the following is an abstract.

By the frame of government, the supreme legislative

legislative power is vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the state of Vermont, to be chosen annually by the freemen on the first Tuesday in September, and to meet the second Thursday of the succeeding October---this body is vested with all the powers necessary for the legislature of a free state---two thirds of the whole number of representatives elected, make a quorum.

Each inhabited town throughout the state, has a right to send one representative to the assembly.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counsellors, to be chosen annually in the same manner, and vested with the same powers as in Connecticut.

Every person of the age of 21 years, who has resided in the state one whole year next before the election of representatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himself by his oath, to do what he shall in conscience judge to be most conducive to the best good of the state, shall be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this state.

Each member of the house of representatives before he takes his seat, must declare his belief in one God---in future rewards and punishments, and in the divinity of the scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and must profess the protestant religion.

Courts of justice are to be established in every county throughout the state.

The supreme court, and the several courts of common pleas of this state, besides the powers usually exercised by such courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, so far as relates to perpetuating testimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the state, and the care of the persons and estates of those who are *non compos mentis*, &c. All prosecutions are to be commenced in the name, and by the authority of the freemen of the state of Vermont. The legislature are to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and staff officers, and commissioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, shall be chosen by the general assembly, and be commissioned by the governor.

Every seventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen persons (none of whom are to be of the council or assembly) shall be chosen by the freemen, and be called 'the council of censors,' whose duty it shall be to enquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate in every part---whether the legislative and executive powers has been properly exercised---taxes justly laid and collected---the public monies rightly disposed of---and the laws duly executed. For these purposes, they shall have power to send for persons, papers, &c.---to pass public censures---to order im-

peachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the constitution. They are to be vested with these powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of censors, when necessary, may call a convention, to meet within two years after their sitting---to alter the constitution---the proposed alterations to be published at least six months before the election of delegates to such convention.

*Chief Town.*] Bennington is the principal town in Vermont. It is situated in the south-west corner of the state, near the foot of the Green Mountain. Its public buildings are a church for Congregationalists, a court-house and gaol. It has a number of elegant houses, and is a flourishing town. Near the center of the town is Mount Anthony, which rises very high in the form of a sugar-loaf. The assembly commonly hold their sessions at Windsor.

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF GIBRALTAR; with an Account of the Siege of that Fortrefs. 8vo. 148 Pages. 6s.

The rock of Gibraltar is said to be seven miles in circumference, and forms a promontory, three miles in length. This singular projection was known to the ancients by the name of Mount Calpe, and, with Mount Abyla on the African shore, was celebrated by them under the appellation of the pillars of Hercules.

In the eighth century, when the Saracens invaded Spain, they erected a castle on Mount Calpe, the remains of which are still to be seen within the lines of the garrison; and in compliment to this leader, the promontory was called Gibel Taref, or the Mountain of Taref, from which it is said to be called, by an easy transition, Gibraltar. Ferdinand, King of Castille, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, took it from the Infidels, but it was, in 1333, retaken by the son of the Emperor of Fez, who besieged it for five months, and starved the garrison into a surrender.

Anno 1410, the King of Grenada got possession of it, but in 1642 it was dismembered from the kingdom of Grenada by the Duke of Medina Sidonia, and added to the crown of Castile

Castile and Leon, under Hen. IV. In the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, it was annexed to Spain. The fortifications were extended and increased during the time of Charles V. but in the beginning of the present century it was taken by an English Squadron, under the command of Sir George Rooke. It was then strong in itself, and mounted one hundred pieces of cannon, but the garrison consisted of one hundred and fifty men only.

Soon after the Marquis of Villadarias set down before it, with a large army; but the garrison, commanded by the Prince of Hesse, defended it with great bravery, and defeated all the attempts of the enemy. An attempt was made by the Spaniards to surprize it in 1720, but a fleet arriving from England, rendered her scheme abortive. In 1726, the Spaniards again opened their trenches against it, but with as little success.

The following is a tolerable good description of this promontory.

The rocks of Gibraltar run from north to south, projecting into the sea several miles from the continent, to which it is connected by an isthmus of low land. It is a part of the province of Andalusia, in Spain. From the perpendicular front to the north, which is of various heights, to the southernmost point, which is called Europa Point, the distance is 2350 fathoms, or something more than two miles and a half. The base of the rock, and the north point, is 475 toises, or 950 yards; and the extreme breadth, taking it from the new mole to the Mediterranean side, is 800 toises, or 1600 yards.

It is inaccessible for the whole length of its escarpment on the east, or Mediterranean side, which is called the back of the rock, the north front, perpendicular towards the isthmus, is equally inaccessible, and the edge of this perpendicular escarpment is occupied by twelve batteries, commanding the isthmus.

The front to the west and the bay is a gradual slope, and almost generally of easy access. There are several roads on that side the rock, which render the communication with the higher parts so easy, that cannon can be dragged up with the greatest facility. All these communications are open, and without intrenchments, except that part of the line which flanks the

entrance to land port, and the foundation. It is at the foot of this accessible slope that the town and garrison are placed. The town and garrison is closed on the side of the bay by an irregular long wall, the defences of which are so inconsiderable as to admit of easy approaches. The flanks, in short, are not by any means in proportion to the lines of defence.

From the town to the new mole, there is but little disputable ground. Between the new mole and Eun Piece point there are several accessible places, where an enemy may land, and where some hundreds of men may form, without being immediately dislodged, a circumstance which would consequently create a considerable diversion in the garrison. But these walls and lodgements are washed by the sea, which greatly protects them. This front indeed is so vulnerable, that it belies the commonly received idea of the impregnability of the rock, which its general appearance to the eye so naturally suggest.

There are two ways of entering the town from the isthmus; one under the escarpments on the causeway, the other under those of the lines, which lead to the glacis that covers the low front, presenting a curtain with two half bastions, on which are mounted twenty-six pieces of heavy artillery, besides the protection already mentioned of the flanking lines.

To the south, the town is terminated by a retrenchment, flanked by a bastion on the west side, a flat bastion in the center, and a demi-bastion, which commands both. The post of Windmill Hill, possesses several local advantages, of which sufficient avail has never yet been taken.

The first intimation that the governor had of the approaching rupture between Great Britain and Spain, was on the 19th of June, 1779, two days after which the usual communication between the English troops and the inhabitants of the adjacent country was put an end to, by an order from Madrid. At this juncture the garrison consisted of 5382 men, including officers, and of 663 serviceable pieces of artillery.

The gallant and memorable defence of Gibraltar is sufficiently known to all Europe, we shall not therefore detail the particulars, but it may be necessary to observe, that this publication is principally intended as an explanatory accompaniment to the plate of the fortification, engraved from a drawing by Mr. Poggi, and that Mr. Herist has evidently paid particular attention to the elucidation of this part of his work.

That

That the object of the fortie was fully accomplished, there can remain no manner of doubt; it must be observed, however, that the smallness of the enemy's forces in the advanced lines, by some accounts said to be only 74, and by others 410 rank and file, is a circumstance which, although it added greatly to the success, must in some measure detract from the wonder attendant upon this enterprize. The detachment has a far better claim to glory, in the humanity with which they treated the prisoners, several of whom were gallantly rescued from immediate destruction. We are in-

duced to think that the loss sustained by the fire, which in the construction and materials is here estimated at a sum of piaſtres equal to three millions sterling, is rather exaggerated.

Mr. H. in an advertisement prefixed, acknowledges his great obligations to the very accurate and interesting journal of the siege of Gibraltar, published by Capt. Drinkwater, and adds, those who wish to peruse the rare occurrences of the glorious defence made by the garrison more in detail, the author of this work must beg leave to refer to Captain Drinkwater's history.

## P O E T R Y.

### HORATIAN PHILOSOPHY.

BY J. AIKIN, M.D.

**F**ROM scenes of tumult, noise and strife,  
And all the ills of public life;  
From waiting at the great man's gate,  
Amid the slaves that swell his state:  
From coxcomb poets and their verses;  
From streets with chariots throng'd, and  
hearses:

From rattling spendthrifts, and their guests,  
And dull buffoons with scurv'y jests;  
From fashion's whims, and folly's freaks;  
From shouts by day, and nightly shrieks;  
O let me make a quick retreat,  
And seek in haste my country seat;  
In silent shades forgotten lie,

And learn to live, before I die!  
There, on the verdant turf reclin'd,  
By wisdom's rules compose my mind;  
My passions still, correct my heart,  
And meliorate my better part:  
Quit idle hope and fond desire,  
And cease to gaze where fools admire:  
With scorn the crowd profane behold  
Enslav'd by sordid thirst of gold,  
Nor deign to bend at such a shrine,  
While priest of Phœbus and the nine.  
Nor would I shun the student's toil,  
But feed my lamp with Grecian oil.  
Sometimes thro' stoic walks sublime  
Up the rough steep of virtue climb;  
From philosophic heights look down,  
Nor heed if fortune smile or frown;  
In wisdom's mantle closely furl'd,  
Defy the tempests of the world;  
And, scorning all that's not our own,  
Place every good in mind alone.  
Then, sliding to an easier plan,  
Put off the God, to be the Man;

Resolve the offer'd sweets to prove  
Of social bowls, gay sports, and love;  
Give forward life its childish toy,  
Nor blush to feel, and to enjoy.  
Yet ever, as by humour led,  
Each path of life in turn I tread,  
Sill to my first great maxim true,  
On moderation fix my view;  
Let her with tempering sway preside  
O'er pleasure's cup and learning's pride;  
And by her sage decrees o'er-rule  
The dogmas of each sturdy school.  
Opinion thus may various play,  
While reason shines with steady ray,  
And casts o'er all the shifting scene  
Her sober hue, and light serene.

### ODE TO HOPE.

FROM POETICAL COMPOSITIONS, &c.

BY ELIZ. BENTLEY.

**O** Thou! advance, whose heav'nly light  
Can make each scene of sadness please;  
On future bliss can fix the sight,  
And anguish change to ease.

'Tis thou, sweet Hope, of race divine,  
Who bid'st the poet's thoughts aspire;  
Thou breath'st thy influence o'er each line,  
And add'st celestial fire.

Thou bid'st his anxious bosom glow,  
To climb the steep ascent of fame;  
To share that praise the just bestow,  
And gain a deathless name.

The painter fir'd by thee can trace,  
Each genuine beauty nature gives,  
As on the canvas shines each grace,  
Renown'd his mem'ry lives.

'Tis



'Tis thou, sweet Hope, whose magic pow'r  
The griefs of absence best can calm;  
While friendship chides each loit'ring hour,  
Thou shed'st thy soothing balm.

Thou mak'st the captive's heart rejoice  
In gloomy regions of despair;  
In thought he hears fair freedom's voice,  
And breathes in purer air.

But oh! when thou forsak'st his breast,  
What dismal horrors round him rise!  
His mind, with weightier chains oppress'd  
Deep sunk in sorrow lies.

The sailor on the wat'ry waste,  
While boist'rous waves terrific roar,

Thou bid'st ideal pleasures taste,  
And tread his native shore.

The wretch whom keen remorse affails,  
Or he who feels misfortune's dart,  
His hapless fate no more bewails,  
Such joy thy beams impart.

When life presents her closing scene,  
Thy radiant sun-shine cheers the soul;  
'Tis thou, bright Hope, with smile  
serene,  
Can fear's dread hand controul.

No mist obstructs thy piercing sight,  
Thou bid'st the mind her greatness know;  
Soaring, thou point'st to realms of light,  
And scorn'st to rest below.

## T H E A T R I C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E.

**A**T Covent Garden theatre, a comic opera, under the title of *Just in Time*, which was performed last season for the benefit of Mr. Munden, was again brought forward, with additions and alterations. The characters were—

Sir Solomon Oddly,	-	Mr. Quick.
Commodore Larboard,	-	Mr. Wilton.
Captain Melville,	-	Mr. Incledon.
Doctor Camomile,	-	Mr. Fawcett.
Steve,	- - -	Mr. Munden.
Barney O'Liffey,	- - -	Mr. Johnstone.
Roger,	- - -	Mr. Thompson.
Le Friz,	- - -	Mr. Farley.
Augusta,	- - -	Miss Dall.
Maria,	- - -	Mrs. Blanchard.
Lady Oddly,	- - -	Mrs. Webb.
Judith,	- - -	Mrs. Martyr.

The fable and conduct of this piece, of which the principal incident is the elopement of Melville and Augusta, is at least entitled to equal praise with the productions of our modern opera writers, who have, in general, left this species of writing to receive all its decorations and attraction from the talents of the scene painter and the musician—The author of *Just in Time* has done more. He has attempted a delineation of character, with a considerable degree of success; and considering it as his first essay in the drama, it claims the encouraging approbation of the public.

The whole of the music is the composition of Mr. Carter, whose talents are well known. Several of the airs were encored, particularly those allotted to Johnstone, which are of the Irish school, and very happily adapted to the character. Incledon was very successful in his songs; but of Miss Dall we cannot speak in commendation; she was frequently out of tune, and her manner is disgustingly insipid—the

VOL. IX.

seems to consider herself merely as a musical instrument, totally unconnected with the scene. Her duet from the balcony with Incledon was totally lost from the distance of the voices from each other.—This, however, may easily be remedied.

The opera was favourably received.

At the same theatre an operatic farce, called *Hartford Bridge, or, the Skirts of the Camp*, was also performed: the characters as follow.

Sir Gregory Forrester,	Mr. Quick.
Peregrine Forrester,	Mr. Munden.
Capt. Fieldair,	- - Mr. Incledon.
Capt. Forrester,	- - Mr. Macready.
Cartridge,	- - Mr. Fawcett.
Peter,	- - - Mr. Blanchard.
Clara,	- - - Mrs. Clandining.
Susan,	- - - Mrs. Harlowe.
Mrs. Jangle,	- - - Mrs. Cross.

Sir Gregory, who boasts of being one of the first that eat beef-steaks and onions on the Thames in a great frost, and of whose family many other actions of equal celebrity are recorded, is desirous of marrying his only daughter to Peregrine, his relation, lest the name should become extinct. Peregrine is a great traveller, who has been in countries that have neither latitude nor longitude; but the daughter is in love with Fieldair, and by the arrival of a son, long supposed dead, to keep up the family name, Sir Gregory is easily brought to consent to the match.

The situations are diverting, though none of the newest, and the incidents succeed one another with sufficient quickness to keep up attention. There is very little attempt at sprightly dialogue, and at wit none.

The most striking character of the piece is the traveller: he is new to the modern stage, and fair dramatic game.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

*Zante, Sept. 14.*

**T**HE plague has for a few weeks past in a great measure ceased in the Morea, and supposed, by some, to be entirely suspended; however none of the foreign consuls or merchants who took refuge here have yet thought it advisable to return to their residence.

*Extra of a letter from Constantinople, Sept. 25.*

"On the morning of the 13th inst. a dreadful conflagration broke out in the center of this city. It continued to rage with great violence for nineteen hours, and after it was supposed to have been extinguished it again broke out, and raged for two hours more before it was finally got under. The total loss is estimated at least at one thousand houses and an immense number of small shops."

"The remissness of the Janissaries in this affair has occasioned the dismissal of the Janissary Aga, who on the 15th inst. was banished to Dematice; and there is a report that he has since been strangled. Since this event several attempts have been made to renew the conflagration in various parts of the city, but happily they have all proved unsuccessful."

*Warsaw, Sept. 29.* Our Envoy at Paris, M. Grazenki, having had orders to quit France, is expected in this capital daily. M. Desforches, the French minister here, departs the beginning of next month, the confederation having hinted to him that they can no longer grant him the prerogatives attached to the public character of a foreign minister since the suppression of the royal authority in France.

*Arau, in Switzerland, Oct. 6.* The Helvetic diet, after having warmly debated upon the part to be taken with regard to France, separated; the midway prevailed, namely, that of an armed neutrality. The canton of Berne, most uneasy as to the design of France, particularly since their entrance into Savoy, have put themselves in a state to repulse them, and have already 20,000 men on foot. The canton of Basle, on the contrary, are upon the most friendly footing with the French; and Lieutenant-General Ferriere, commandant of Blotzheim, having sent his adjutant to assure the people of Basle of his intentions to keep up good neighbourhood with them, received a very flattering letter by way of answer.

*Ratisbon, Oct. 9.* Yesterday the diet, after a very long session, resolved, "that as soon as accounts are received of the invasion of Germany, and the further progress of the French in the German empire, every one of the different estates which are in order shall afford assistance to those parts that are attacked, and that these estates

that are not in order shall immediately raise their contingences, and that this resolution, which does not require any particular instruction, but is founded upon the resolution of the diet of the 9th of August, 1791, shall be noticed to the different courts interested therein, and particularly to the principal imperial commissioner, that it may be immediately laid before the emperor; and that the deliberation upon the imperial decree of the 1st of September shall be postponed to the 22d inst. at furthest."

*Florence, Oct. 19.* Whilst all the states of Italy seem alarmed at the French fleet, now in our seas, we, by observing the strictest neutrality, are under no apprehension; and we have received a notification of the approbation of the French nation relative to our conduct, from the French charge des affaires.

*Wetzlaer, Oct. 27.* The chamber of Wetzlaer have received a letter from the French General Custine, saying, that although the French nation had made war upon some of the states of the empire, it was never their intention to molest those free towns and states which had not sheltered the Emigrants, or encouraged the enemies of the republic of France; and therefore that the chamber of Wetzlaer may be assured of his protection, and that their city should not be disturbed; and that he had sent them a formal protection signed by himself, being assured he would be justified by the French nation.

*Coblentz, Oct. 28.* This town has been more fortunate than Frankfort and Mentz; and we may think ourselves secure from any attack, unless made in form. Yesterday 3800 Hessians entered this place, and the rest are expected this day. These will be relieved by the Prussian troops, who will pass the winter here. General Custine arrived on the 27th in the afternoon at Frankfort, at the head of 4000 men; after which the French garrison, which had been there since the 22d under General Victor Neuvinger, marched out of the gate leading to Wetzlaer, and into the country of Hesse. The gates of Frankfort are now open, and trade goes on as usual; but General Custine has retained the principal bankers as hostages for the payment of the contribution of 1,500,000 florins, which he has exacted, and which the magistracy protest they cannot pay.

*Brussels, Oct. 29.* The French in the neighbourhood of Valenciennes and Maubeuge seem to be making preparations that indicate an invasion of the Netherlands, which no doubt is the reason that the army of the Duke of Saxe-Tesschen will not go into winter-quarters, but be stationed

tioned upon the frontiers, to be ready to oppose any attempts of the enemy; and a quantity of warlike stores, which were sent from our army, are returned to it. It is also said that General Clairfait's whole army will shortly unite itself to that of the Duke of Saxe-Teschén.

General Dumourier is arrived at Lisle, where he is preparing for the execution of the project which he has so much at heart, namely, the invasion of the Austrian Netherlands. The French in the neighbourhood of Givet and Philippeville are also in motion.

Just as the post is going off we learn, that the paved road from Mons to Quivrain, which leads to Valenciennes, is ordered to be taken up and destroyed, to stop the passage on that side, and render the transportation of artillery the more difficult.

*Extract of a letter from Cologne, Oct. 30.*

"Since the taking of Mentz by the French, every thing is on the same footing as in France, and patriotic clubs are established.

"The contributions are not yet wholly paid, nevertheless commerce and navigation proceed as usual.

"At Frankfort they have taken several rich bankers as hostages, and the contribution which they have demanded from this city is to be levied on the effects of the Patricians, and the nobles, who have its jurisdiction. The number of cannon found in the three arsenals amounts, it is said, to more than a thousand, with a proportionate quantity of ammunition, all which are to be conveyed into France.

"General Custine has declared to the Burgeses of Mentz, that notwithstanding the report to the contrary, he should defend himself against the whole united force of his enemies.

"On the 25th and 26th, four hundred Hessians arrived at Coblenz, who were followed the next day by a battalion of Grenadiers, several squadrons of Hussars, and the regiment of Hessian foot guards.---The 28th, the remainder of the Hessians arrived, to the number of 3,800.---On the 29th, a detachment of Prussian troops came in, which were followed by a whole column of their army, which is to take up its winter-quarters there."

#### WEST-INDIA INTELLIGENCE.

*From the JAMAICA ROYAL GAZETTE.*

*Kingston, Aug. 11.* Saturday last, about one o'clock, P. M. the main roller of the castle mill, upon Berwick estate, the property of Sir Alexander Grant, Bart. in the parish of St. Thomas in the Vale, was shivered almost wholly into splinters by a tremendous flash of lightning. Several negroes were in the mill-house, but escaped unhurt. A gentleman sitting near the door of the overseer's house received a severe

shock, by which he was blinded for some minutes; and another felt it so sensibly, that it was with difficulty he supported himself on his legs.

We understand that the spring of chalybeate water in Liguanea mountains, known by the name of the Jamaica Spa, has disappeared from the place whence it used to flow. The ground about it having long been neglected, it is presumed that an accumulated quantity of dirt, weeds, &c. prevented the egress of the water, and that it sought another channel, which, to the disappointment of those afflicted with disorders, for which the water is a specific, has not yet been found.

A new 74 and a 60 gun ship were lately launched at Havannah.

The Colonial Assembly of St. Domingo have deputed three members of their own body, Messrs. Lux, Page, and Brulley, as commissioners to France, for the purpose of presenting the following decree on slavery, for the direct and immediate sanction of the king.

"The legislative Colonial Assembly of the French part of St. Domingo, by virtue of the third article of the constitutional law of the 28th of September, 1791, has decreed, and decrees as follows:

"Art. I. The colony of St. Domingo cannot exist without the maintenance of slavery. The slave is the property of his master, and no authority can divest him of that property.

"Art. II. To the Colonial Assembly alone shall belong the right of granting manumissions, at the express request of the owner, for such causes, and in such manner, as the law shall direct. The act of manumission shall be submitted to the approbation of the governor.

#### SELECTION OF FRENCH NEWS.

In the session of the national convention of the 18th of October, a letter was read from an emigrant officer, expressing his repentance, and requesting permission to return to his country. A letter from the corps of emigrants, called the body-guards, contained the same request. The convention passed on to the order of the day on both these letters.

A letter was read from General Custine, the purport of which was to inform the convention of the surrender of Frankfort on the Main without the least resistance. He found in Frankfort 165 pieces of artillery, and a great quantity of arms and ammunition.

A letter was read from the home minister, enclosing one from the municipal officers of Lyons, announcing that the city of Lyons was a prey to disorder, and requesting the convention to send commissioners there, to restore order, and re-elect the municipal officers.

An address was read from the citizens of the city and county of Nice, requesting that they may be admitted French citizens, and soliciting the post of marshal of France for General Anselme.

A letter was read from General Omeron, commandant at Condé, to General Dumourier, informing him that his right wing had been attacked, but that he had repulsed the enemy.

In the sessions of the 29th the home minister presented an account of the situation of Paris. This memorial was read by a secretary. The minister in it examines successively the state of the public authorities of Paris; the obstacles opposed, either by the council general of the commons, or by the sections, to the execution of the laws; and the irregularity of the military service. In a word, he says, Paris is an administrative corps without powers; a despotic commonality; a good but deceived people; an excellent public force, but not well commanded. These evils he attributes to the weakness of the legislative corps, who preceded the convention, and the delay on the part of the convention in neglecting to take some strong and necessary measures. This report, he says, will create him a number of enemies; but he prefers exposing the truth to his own personal safety. Annexed to his letters were some justificatory pieces, and a letter to prove that he was included in the list of proscriptions denounced to the criminal tribunal. The memorial of the home minister obtained great applause, and was ordered to be printed.

In the session of the 29th a report was read from the home minister respecting the 33 deserters brought to Paris, wherein they were represented to be Dutch, Prussians, and Germans, whom the enemy had left behind to conduct their equipage. Two French servants were with them, who left their masters on account of their ill treatment.

M. Robespierre claimed the attention of the assembly respecting the report of the home minister on the present situation of Paris, as he conceived himself personally alluded to therein. A long debate ensued in consequence: Robespierre insulted the president, and the assembly moved he should be called to order. M. Louvet rose, and accused Robespierre, whose conduct he moved should be examined; he also moved for a decree of accusation against M. Marat, who had declared himself that it was necessary to take off 260,000 more heads, and had acknowledged that he had attempted to subvert the government. M. Louvet's speech was a very long one, and at the conclusion met with great applause, and was ordered to be printed. Robespierre obtained leave to answer the accusations of Louvet on Monday.

In the sessions of the 30th the home mi-

nister announced that, in defiance of a decree of the convention, the council general of the commons of Paris were preparing to send all the municipalities and popular societies the address of the commissioners of the section relative to the guard of the national convention. The address was counter-signed by Petion; and he, suspecting it to be false, had ordered the packets to be stopped. Petion denied the signature, and the council general were ordered to appear at the bar of the convention the next day. M. Barbaroux delivered a discourse touching the means of restoring order in Paris. His propositions were listened to with satisfaction, but nothing was resolved on.

A letter was read from the commissioners sent to the army in the north, dated Lille, the 28th of October, informing the convention that the enemy still continued to evacuate the territory of the republic: they are at present entrenched at Lys, and on the side of Tournay; but the French troops, they say, will soon dislodge them. The French emigrants now want to return to their country; but the commissioners have issued a proclamation, which they annexed to their letter, expressing their determination to execute the last decree respecting those perverse people with the utmost rigour. General L'Amorlier, by order of General Dumourier, had made a false attack on the troops commanded by General Beaulieu; the French troops behaved with great courage.

A letter was read from General Valence, dated from Longuen, containing the details announced by the commissioners sent to his army in a former session.

In the session of the 31st no accounts were received from the armies. The council-general of the commons of Paris were heard at the bar, touching the accusation preferred against them by the home-minister; they declared they never had taken any resolution respecting the distribution of departments under the direction of the commissioners of the sections, and promised to search after, and denounce to the national convention, those members of the council who were individually guilty of that illegal measure. The assembly passed on to the order of the day on this accusation.

In the session of the 21st inst. the national convention of France decreed, that the workmen, who since the cessation of their labour, had returned home, should receive three sous for each league they had to go.

A letter was read from General Valence, dated the 31st of October, informing the convention, that on the day of the affair of Virton, after the departure of the Austrians from the castle of De la Tour, the French troops had found the trophies which the Austrians took in the year 1790 from the Belgians. He wished to know whether he

was

was to restore them to the Belgians, or what was to be done with them. The convention decreed that they should be sent to Dumourier, who should restore them to the Belgians.

In the session of the 3d a letter was read from the friends of liberty and equality at Strasburgh, announcing that the Mayencois wish to be united to France, and that their only fear is that of again falling into the power of the despots from whom France has delivered them. M. Rhul supported their request, and proposed that the republic of France should take them under its protection. Referred to the legislative committee.

A letter was read from the marine minister, informing the convention, that he, by letters from Nice, had learnt the arrival of the squadron commanded by Rear Admiral Truguet, before Oneille; that admiral sent a boat, either to summon the city to surrender, or learn the proposals of the commandant; but some peasants in ambush fired on the boat, killed Auberlmenille, aide-de-camp to the general; Isnard, a midshipman, and five others. Duchallia and some more were wounded. The squadron, however, consisting of six ships, have revenged the French nation by a terrible fire, which had destroyed part of the city.

Some deputies extraordinary from Lyons presented a petition, in which they attributed the disturbances in that city to a scarcity of provisions, where 30,000 workmen are without bread; they requested a supply, to prevent fresh troubles. The convention decreed, that twelve millions should be placed in the hands of the home minister, to relieve those places which stood in need of it, and he is to give an account of the expenditure thereof within 20 days.

A letter was read from General Beurnonville, dated the 2d of November, informing the convention, that the Austrians had that morning evacuated the small town of Lannoy, but that he had not been able to make the garrison prisoners.

The commissioners sent to the army in the north wrote word, that they still continue to visit the different posts occupied by the French troops. General Dumourier has held a council of war at Valenciennes, to concert the plan of the campaign which the French are about to open in Brabant. The resolutions cannot be made public, but the commissioners assure the convention that the Belgians shall soon be free. To their letter was annexed one from the army in the North. The session broke up at four o'clock.

In the session of the national convention of the 4th inst. a letter was read from General Custine, denouncing General Kellerman as a coward and a traitor. Annexed

to his letter was his correspondence with him, which he brought forward in support of his charge. After the letter was read, Carra rose, and informed the convention, that he had seen the correspondence between Custine and Kellerman, and by no means coincided with the former. Custine sent word to Kellerman to join him at Treves; but the latter, abandoned by Dumourier, had only 15,000 men, and Valence about as many; and was it possible for an army of 30,000 men to make their way through an army of 55,000 men, in a camp well secured and watched? It was, he said, a thing that Kellerman could not be expected to accomplish. The pieces were referred to the military committee.

Another letter was read from Custine, informing the convention that he had seized a sum of 14,000,000 belonging to the House of Austria, which he found in a banker's hands at Frankfort. He at first, he said, had imposed a contribution of 2,000,000 on the inhabitants of Frankfort, but had reduced it to 1,000,000. The magistrates afterwards came to him, and told him that the people were in consequence on the point of revolting. On examination, he found that they had attempted to raise the contribution on the lower class of people; he therefore had issued a proclamation, raising the contribution again to 2,000,000, and ordering it to be levied on the rich inhabitants only.

A deputation from the city of Nice appeared at the bar, and presented an address, requesting that the city might be united to the republic of France. The deputies were received very cordially; but on the motion of Barrere, it was decreed, that the sense of the French people should be taken before they decided on that request.

A deputation from the federates presented an address, complaining that a set of men were endeavouring to create an enmity between them and the people of Paris, and requested that a fête might be given, in which they might mix with the Parisians, and join their hearts and hands together as brothers. A deputation, on the other hand, of the sections of Paris, presented an address, requesting that the federates might be sent to the frontiers. Barrere supported the federates, and moved that both petitions should be printed.

#### DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

A letter from Berlin says, "A board of war has just broke up, and made their report; commissions are transmitted to several places to bring up grain for filling the public magazines. The regiment of cuirassiers, which had only six companies, is to be augmented to ten, in order to be equal with the other twelve regiments. The battalion of chasseurs, and that of engineers, are both augmented by draughts from



from the cantons; and many other military operations are on foot."

*Extract of a Letter from the Governor and Council of Fort St. George, in their Political Department, to the Court of Directors, dated May 25, 1792.*

"We have the pleasure to inform your honourable court, that all the forts ceded to the Company by the late definitive treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultaun, in the Baramhau and Salem countries, have been delivered up, and that we have sent instructions to Major Cuppage (at the desire of Lord Cornwallis) to return to the Carnatic, with the present garrison of Palicautcherry, as soon as the troops sent by General Abercromby to take possession of the fort should arrive at that place. Orders have been since given by his lordship for breaking up the detachment.

"At the recommendation of Lord Cornwallis we have issued a proclamation regarding the renewal of a commercial intercourse between the Carnatic and Mysore countries; and directing that merchants of all descriptions belonging to the Mysore country be henceforward permitted to enter the Carnatic, and to carry on their dealings with this settlement, or with any part of the territory of the Company or their allies, under the same privileges which they enjoyed before the late war."

Account of the total of capital stock redeemed by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt on the 1st of November, 1792.

	£.
Consols 3 per cent. - - -	3,487,605
Reduced ditto - - - -	2,971,600
Old South Sea - - - -	1,667,400
New South Sea - - - -	1,288,800
South Sea 1757 - - - -	396,400
	<hr/>
	9,811,805

On the 27th of October, at noon, Sir Andrew Hammond, the commander in chief at Portsmouth, sent an order to Capt. Montague, of the *Hector*, to release Mr. Heywood, a midshipman, and James Morrison, boatswain's mate, two of the unfortunate persons who were convicted of mutinously running away with the *Bounty* armed ship, commanded by Capt. Bligh, in the *South Seas*, but at the earnest request of the court-martial which tried them were pardoned by his majesty. After reading the order, which he did upon the quarter-deck, in the presence of his own officers and ship's company, Capt. Montague, in the most elegant and officer-like manner, pointed out to the prisoners the evil of their past conduct; and in language that drew tears from all who heard him, recommended to them to make atonement by their future good behaviour. They were both of them very sensibly affected, and endeavour-

ed, in vain, to offer their acknowledgments for the tender treatment they had experienced on board the *Hector*. Mr. Heywood, however, who seemed to have anticipated his inability to speak, addressed Capt. Montague in a paper, which was read, to the following purport: "Sir, when the sentence of the law was passed upon me, I received it, I trust, as became a man; and if it had been carried into execution, I should have met my fate, I hope, in a manner becoming a Christian. Your admonition cannot fail to make a lasting impression on my mind. I receive with gratitude my sovereign's mercy; for which my future life shall be faithfully devoted to his service." He was attended by Mr. Graham, who took him on shore in one of the ship's boats, which Capt. Montague was so good as to order for the purpose, and immediately after landing, they set off together for London. Ellison, Millward, and Burket, were ordered for execution on board the *Brunswick*, pursuant to their sentence. William Musprat is respited during his majesty's pleasure.

On the Monday following, at eleven o'clock, Burket, Ellison, and Millward, three seamen late belonging to the *Bounty* armed ship, were brought on the deck of the *Brunswick*, at Portsmouth, for execution, pursuant to their sentence, and about half past eleven the terrible signal of death was fired, when they were launched into eternity. They behaved in the most penitent and manly manner, embracing each other repeatedly, saying, "God bless you, God receive you in mercy;" but persisted to the last moment of their existence that they were totally innocent of the crime for which they were to suffer. Though the number of spectators of this awful example of military discipline was certainly great, yet many respectable inhabitants purposely left the town till the melancholy scene closed.

#### MARRIED.

Near Limerick, Ireland, the Right Hon. and Right Rev. Baron Glentworth, Bishop of Limerick, to the relict of the late General Crump.

At Rathcormuck, Ireland, Capt. James Millerd, of the 56th regiment, to the Right Hon. Lady Riversdale.

At Bourdeaux, in France, the Right Hon. the Earl of Shrewsbury to Miss Hoy, of Dublin.

At Edinburgh, Alexander Forbes, Esq. of the 44th regiment of infantry, to Miss Lindefay, eldest daughter of James Lindefay, Esq. of Leith.

At Wandsworth, J. L. Goodwin, Esq. of Nazeingbury, Essex, to Miss Goodwin, of West-hill-house, Wandsworth.

Lord Cranston, to Miss Monteliere.

Francis Smith, Esq. to Miss Vanhulen.

Robert



Robert Watfon, Esq. of Whitby, to Miss Watfon, of Sunderland.

John Mort, Esq. of Whitby, to Miss Soulbey, of Ailathic.

At Clackmannon, Walter Watfon, Esq. late of India, to Miss Margaret Bruce, youngest daughter of the late Lord Kennet.

J. S. Braine, Esq. to Miss Bennet.

James Scarlett, Esq. of the Inner Temple, to Miss L. Campbell, of Orchard-street.

George Chalmers, Esq. to Miss Turner. Richard Cheftyn, Esq. of Bourne, Cambridgeshire, to Miss Warner, of the same place.

D I E D.

In the Isle of Sky, Capt. Allan Macdonald, of the late 84th regiment.

The lady of Sir Roger Moyfton, Flintshire, Bart. representative in parliament for that county.

The lady of Robert Dallas, Esq. barrister at law.

Aged 16, Miss Anna Maria Inyon Cooper, daughter of the Rev. Dr. Cooper, of Great Yarmouth.

At Stockton upon Tees, Durham, John Lutton, Esq. formerly commander of the Portland East-Indiaman.

At Bath, James Barry, Esq. of the county of Cork, formerly representative in parliament for the borough of Rathcormuck.

Capt. James Irvine, of the first battalion royals.

At York, in the 79th year of his age, Hale Wyvill, Esq.

Miss Harriet Shucburgh, daughter of William Shucburgh, Esq. of Bath.

Aged 21, Miss Eliza Comyn, daughter of the late Stephen Comyn, Esq.

Robert Hutton Gill, Esq. eldest son of William Gill, Esq. alderman of the city of London.

At Dundee, Sir Robert Preston, Bart. Christopher Splidt, Esq. of St. George's Place, Ratcliffe.

Robert Kenedy, of Daljurrech, Esq.

Henry Shield, Esq. many years treasurer for the county of Rutland.

In the Isle of Wight, Thomas Brigftork, Esq. aged 17 years.

In Kingston, Jamaica, Dr. Alexander Moodie, surgeon to the 62d regiment.

At Long Ashton, aged 93, the Rev. Henry Conor, D. D. some time since rector of King's Chapel, at Boston, in New-England.

At Longridge Hall near Berwick, Francis Ord, Esq. father to Mrs. Ruspini, of Pall-Mall.

Suddenly, the Rev. William Camplin, B. B. many years resident rector of Maifey Hampton, Gloucestershire, and formerly fellow of Corpus Christi college, Oxford.

Sir Robert Preston, Bart.

The Right Honourable Constantine John Phipps, Lord Mulgrave.

B A N K R U P T S.

Thomas Pacey, of Church-street, Rotherhithe, master mariner. Henry Jackson the younger, of Pontefract, Yorkshire, grocer. John North, of Liversedge, Yorkshire, carpet-manufacturer. Christopher Wimp, of White-horse-yard, Drury-lane, Middlesex, woollen-draper. James Newby, of Little St. Martin's-lane, Middlesex, money-scrivener. James Davidton, of Oxford-street, Middlesex, man's-mercier. William Thorne, of Fulwood's, otherwise Fuller's Rents, Holborn, Middlesex, taylor. Elizabeth Howes, now or late of Brampton, Huntingdon, blacksmith. William Webb and Rees Webb, both late of the island of Dominica, and now of the city of Bristol, merchants. Thomas Pickering, of Manchester, woollen-draper. Walter Gillmore, late of Marlborough, Wilts, grocer. Philip Davy, late of Cardiff, Glamorgan, grocer. Joshua Farrer, of Manchester, innkeeper. Samuel Hatterfly, of White-horse-yard, Drury-lane, Middlesex, woollen-draper. James Hawkins, of Abingdon, Berks, hatter and hosier. John Cheshire, of Over Whitacre, Warwickshire, architect and builder. Alexander Lowe, of Great Surry-street, Surry, hardwareman. Richard Blackburn, of Clayton, Yorkshire, dealer and chapman. Frederick Strecker, of Park-street, Groivernor-square, Taylor. William Peppin, of Dulverton, Somersetshire, surgeon and apothecary. Alice Warwick, late of Reading in Berks, widow, dealer in bacon. Daniel Shaw, of St. Martin's-lane, vintner. Geo. Mills, of Dockhead, leather-dresser. James Woods, of Chelmsford, in Essex, coachmaker. William Austin, of Tooley-street, shoe-maker. John Turney, of Pudding-lane, apothecary. George Walton, late of Charles-street, St. Andrew's, Holborn, linen-draper. John Cunningham Butler Campbell, of Bath, bookseller. John Cleever, of Chester, goldsmith. John Lazony, of Charing-cross, linen-draper. Isaiah Dixon, of Newport-street, Middlesex, linen-draper. William Felton, of Long-acre, coachmaker. George Allen, of the parish of Chatham, in the county of Kent, brewer. Boradale Dickenson, now or late of Gravel-lane, Surry, victualler. William Sladen, of Ratcliffe Cross, Middlesex, grocer. John Bradley, of the city of Gloucester, woollen-draper. William Cooper, of Leadenhall-street, surveyor. William Webby, of George-street, in the parish of Walcot, Somersetshire, perfumer. Archibald Corrie, of Berwick-street, Oxford-road, Taylor. Solomon Barnard, of White's-row, Spitalfields, Middlesex, linen-draper. Robert Hellow, of Aldersgate, victualler. Thomas Pickering, of Manchester, woollen-draper. William Whitmore, late of Hatton-garden, money-scrivener. William Walker, of Thatchleach within Pilkington, Lancashire, manufacturer.

# PRICE OF STOCKS IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1792.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Ct. Reduced.	3 per Ct. Confol.	4 per Ct. Confol.	5 per Ct. Navy.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	India Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	3 pr.Ct. 1751	New Navy. ½ dif.	Exch Bills.	Tontine	Lottery Tickets.
1	199½	88½	90	100	117	25 5-16	11 7-16	210	104	101	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16 15 0
2	200	—	90½	100	117½	25 5-16	11 7-16	210	103	103	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16 15 0
3	200½	89	90½	100	117½	25 5-16	11 7-16	210	104	104	—	89½	—	—	—	12 pr.	—	16 14 0
4	201	89½	90½	100	118	25 5-16	11 7-16	210	104	104	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16 13 6
5	201½	89½	90½	100	118	25 7-16	11 7-16	209½	85½	108	—	89½	—	—	½ dif.	13 pr.	—	16 13 0
6	202	89½	90½	100	118½	25 7-16	11 7-16	210	111	111	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16 13 0
7	202½	89½	90½	100	118½	25 1-16	11 7-16	211	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16 13 0
8	203	89½	90½	100	118	25 3-16	11 7-16	211½	—	110	—	89½	—	—	—	—	—	16 13 0
9	203½	89½	90½	100	118	25 3-16	11 7-16	211½	—	109	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16 13 0
10	204	89½	90½	100	118½	25 3-16	11 7-16	211	—	—	—	—	—	—	½ dif.	15 pr.	—	16 13 0

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY,  
In LONDON, for Nov. 1792.

By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN.

Height of the Barometer and Thermometer  
with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days	Barometer Inches, and 100th Parts.		Thermome- ter Fahrenheit's		Weather in Novemb 1792.	
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock. Noon.		
21	29 41	29 42	56	57	51	Rain
22	29 61	29 67	38	58	52	Ditto
23	29 85	30 11	45	47	43	Fair
24	30 21	30 21	44	50	39	Ditto
25	30 11	30 16	49	52	38	Ditto
26	29 88	29 65	45	49	49	Cloudy
27	29 65	29 77	53	58	55	Ditto
28	29 73	29 73	57	56	53	Ditto
29	29 72	29 81	54	56	49	Rain
30	29 74	29 31	54	57	56	Ditto
31	29 34	29 61	55	58	47	Cloudy
1	29 65	30 51	51	54	52	Rain
2	29 74	30 01	43	50	49	Fair
3	30 01	30 01	54	62	54	Ditto
4	30 01	30 02	46	58	47	Ditto
5	30 08	30 08	40	46	40	Foggy
6	30 07	30 04	38	44	47	Ditto
7	30 06	30 18	47	50	51	Cloudy
8	30 24	30 24	50	54	52	Ditto
9	30 12	30 19	52	56	54	Ditto
10	30 06	30 06	52	53	52	Ditto
11	30 02	29 87	51	51	46	Ditto
12	29 75	29 45	43	51	45	Ditto
13	29 39	29 26	50	55	49	Rain
14	29 17	29 25	47	52	50	Ditto
15	29 42	29 63	45	50	40	Ditto
16	29 61	29 32	40	45	36	Fair
17	29 41	29 05	34	41	35	Ditto
18	30 05	29 71	37	50	47	Cloudy
19	29 72	30 01	48	52	41	Ditto
20	30 22	30 01	35	37	44	Ditto
21	28 85	29 43	52	54	44	Ditto

PRICES of CORN,  
For NOVEMBER, 1792.

From 2 to 9.—From 19 to 26.

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Wheat	48	0		53	6
Rye -	31	0		31	0
Barley	33	6		36	0
Oats -	22	6		22	0
Beans	35	0		34	0

7,

N.

ter

r

p.

,

.

*Literary Magazine.*



**A K E N S I D E .**

*Published as the Act directs. 1 Jan. 1793, for the Proprietors, by J. Good, Bond Street.*